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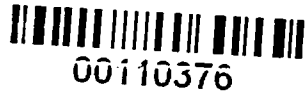
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EDUCATION COMMISSION.

BOMBAY:

VOL. I.

REPORT

OF THE

BOMBAY PROVINCIAL COMMITTEE.

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CHAPTER I.

SKETCH OF EDUCATION PRIOR TO THE DESPATCH OF 1854.

The early history of education in Bombay is chiefly a record of Christian missionary enterprise. During the ascendancy of the Portuguese in Western India their religious orders organised a system of instruction which was carefully developed until the date of their expulsion by the Maráthas. When that power in turn yielded to the shock of British conquest, the English and American Missionary Societies at once commenced to lay the foundations of a scheme of national education. In 1814 the American Mission had opened its first school in Bombay. The London Mission and the Church Missionary Society commenced their labours in 1820, and two years later the Scottish Mission was working in the same field of benevolence. In 1815 the Society for promoting the Education of the Poor within the Government of Bombay, now known as the Bombay Education Society, could boast that it had received in a single year from voluntary subscriptions Rs. 23,711. A society supported by such liberality, and actuated by less exclusive motives than mere missionary zeal, was destined to become the rallying point of all parties interested in the spread of education. The society became the parent of other societies, one of which was called the Native School-book and School Society. This society was in 1840 transformed with the addition of certain official members into the Board of Education, which until 1855 guided the fortunes of education in Western India. In fact the Board became the main-spring of the whole machinery of education. The Government had previously interested itself directly in the promotion of higher education, and had attempted to place primary education under the charge of its district officers. But it resigned its functions in favour of the Board, and the splendid scheme of a complete system of education, which the far-sighted Mountstuart Elphinstone had traced in 1823, became the avowed policy of the Board, whose administration inspired the fullest confidence of the community, both European and Native. The formation of the Board in 1840 constitutes, therefore, an important epoch in the history of education. The fifteen years which followed that event naturally divide themselves into two periods. The guiding spirit of the first was Sir E. Perry. His strong preference for higher education, his partial mistrust of missionary enterprise, and his advocacy of the theory of "filtration downwards" impressed themselves upon the Board's administration until 1852. The period was one of improved administration of higher education, and only moderate advance in elementary schools. Upon his retirement, however, the claims of the masses were more fully recognised, the Government increased their grant to education, and a remarkable and immediate advance in primary schools commenced. When the Board resigned in 1855, the formation of a Department of Public Instruction upon the lines of the Despatch of 1854 was found to be no new departure from a policy previously followed, but rather the culmination of that policy and a natural advance in a direction which had already been fully surveyed. The following pages will show in greater detail how a result so satisfactory was achieved.

Portuguese institutions.

Nearly three centuries before the English Missionary Societies commenced to labour in Bombay, and more than a hundred years before the Island of Bombay was ceded to the English Crown, the Portuguese had founded * an orphanage at Montpezier in Sálsette for the maintenance and education of destitute native children. The institution flourished for upwards of two centuries; and its Church and ruined walls are still standing. Other similar establishments were founded about the same time in the neighbouring islands of Agasaim and Karanja (Uran); and in 1556 a large orphanage for 130 boys was established near Thána, at a village which was situated in the valley now covered by the Vehár lake. All of these orphanages gave an elementary education in Portuguese and Latin, and to this was added instruction in agriculture and other industrial work.

Towards the end of the sixteenth century, the Franciscan and Jesuit orders maintained at Bombay and on the adjacent islands a considerable number of parochial elementary schools which were slightly inferior in grade to the orphan-

* In 1526.

ages. Colleges for higher instruction also were established at Bassein, Thána, and Chaul. In the institution at Bassein, which was founded in 1548 and had a theological seminary attached to it, a high order of education was given gratuitously to upwards of 300 students. Dr. John Fryer, who visited Bombay in the year 1674 and saw these flourishing establishments, describes their collegiate buildings as being not unlike those at the English Universities; and he adds that the Bassein College had an extensive library of historical, moral, and expository works.

On the expulsion of the Portuguese by the Maráthas in 1739, and the suppression of the Catholic Orders, the orphanages and colleges were all broken up. But the parish schools, which evidently supplied a public want, survived, and were carried on by the native clergy with the aid of private liberality. An attempt was, however, made by Sir Miguel De Lima towards the end of last century to establish a college at Bombay, but it failed; and it was not until the return of the Jesuits to Bombay, shortly before the foundation of the Bombay University, that the re-establishment of a complete system of schools was successfully taken in hand.

In 1718 a school for European children was opened in the Fort of Bombay by the Reverend R. Cobbe, the Chaplain of St. Thomas's Church (now the Anglican Cathedral). It was supported during many years by voluntary subscriptions.† But in 1807 the Court of Directors took the school into their own hands and allowed it a grant of Rs. 300 per mensem.

The Bombay Education Society.

A few years afterwards the school was made over to the *Society for promoting the Education of the Poor within the Government of Bombay*, or, as it was more usually, styled the *Bombay Education Society*, the Govenment undertaking in return to pay the society a fixed grant of Rs. 3,600 per annum, in addition to an annual grant of Rs. 1,680 already enjoyed by them. The total grant of Rs. 5,280 has been continued ever since. In 1825 the school was removed from the Fort and incorporated with the society's own institution which had been established at Byculla at a cost of Rs. 1,71,238.

The Bombay Education Society was founded in 1815, and is described by the committee in their report for the year 1817 as "not only the first, but the only, education society then in India that was solely supported by voluntary contributions." In the first five years of their existence the committee received nearly a láhk of rupees in benefactions and annual subscriptions, and they were also warmly supported by the National Society in England. Their operations extended beyond the island of Bombay. They opened schools at Thána and Surat; and at the end of 1820 their schools were attended by nearly 500 children. The society did not, however, confine its efforts to the instruction of European children. Native boys were encouraged to attend the schools at Surat and Thána, and at the beginning of 1820 four separate schools for natives had been opened in Bombay and were attended by nearly 250 pupils. The cost of these schools was defrayed partly from fees, and partly from the society's own funds, which had been raised by Church-collections, and by other voluntary subscriptions from the European community. In August of the same year further measures were taken to extend native education. A special committee was appointed by the Society to prepare School-books in the Vernacular Languages, and to aid or establish Vernacular Schools. But the wide scope of the undertaking was soon seen to be beyond the aims of a society established mainly for the education of the poor; and in 1822 the committee became a separate corporation, thenceforth known as the *Bombay Native School-book and School Society*.

The Bombay Native Education Society.

The parent society from this time confined its efforts to the education of European and Indo-European children. It still maintains two large schools at Byculla, and has of late interested itself in promoting industrial education. The Honourable Mountstuart Elphinstone was the new society's first President. The Vice-

* We are indebted for most of the above information to the Right Reverend Dr. Meurin, S.J., Vicar Apostolic of Bombay. His Lordship's interesting sketch of this early period is printed *in extenso* as Appendix A.

† Mrs. Eleanor Boyd bequeathed Rs. 6,000 to the school in 1767. This sum lying at interest for 57 years in the East India Company's Treasury, accumulated to Rs. 46,115.

Presidents were the Chief Justice and the three members of the Executive Council of the Bombay Government; and the managing committee consisted of twelve European and twelve native gentlemen, with Captain George Jervis, R.E., and Mr. Sadáshiv Káshináth Chhatre as Secretaries. A sub-committee was also appointed for the preparation and publication of school-books.

From this period, down to the year 1855, the history of education in the Bombay Presidency may be said to be the operations of this strongly constituted society,* and of the missionaries from the several Christian Churches of Europe and America.

The American Missionary Society.

The American Mission at Bombay had indeed opened a vernacular school for boys as early as the year 1814; and by 1825 they had 35 schools of this class which were attended by 2,000 children. His Excellency the Governor of Bombay and many of the highest officers of Government were liberal subscribers to the Mission's school-funds. To this society is also due the credit of being the pioneer of female education. The first native girls' school in the Presidency was opened by the American Missionaries in 1824, and two years later they reported an increase of nine girls' schools with an aggregate attendance of 340 pupils. In 1829 the number of pupils rose to 400, of whom 122 were able to read, write and cipher, and to do plain needle-work. One of these institutions was a boarding-school which was successfully maintained for many years at Byculla in the island of Bombay. In 1831 two native girls' schools were established by the same Mission at Ahmednagar, and a boarding-school for girls was soon afterwards opened in that town and has been maintained there ever since. The society's report for 1846 notes that the Ahmednagar Mission had under its supervision eleven village-schools, which were attended mostly by children of the higher castes and were taught by Bráhman masters. An advanced vernacular school for the training of male teachers, which was opened at Ahmednagar in 1835, is also said to have been carried on with success for many years. It was ultimately (1867) made over to the Christian Vernacular Society as the nucleus of a normal school.

The Scottish Missionary Society.

The Scottish Missionary Society began operations in the villages of the Southern Konkan in the year 1822. By 1827 they had under their control no less than 80 schools attended by about 3,000 scholars, 300 of whom were girls.

Encouraged by the success which attended the efforts of this society, Lieutenant T. B. Jervis, R.E., and a committee of native gentlemen began (1823) in the same district to open free schools for the instruction of the poor of all classes in their native languages and to assist the indigenous schools with grants of books. In the following year the committee had under their supervision five Vernacular schools and one English school in or near Ratnágiri, and a class for the training of teachers. The schools were taught on the Lancastrian system, and were supported by donations and annual subscriptions amounting to about Rs. 3,000. On the receipt of Lieutenant Jervis's report, the Bombay Government expressed their cordial approval of the "judicious means which had been adopted to procure the co-operation of the natives of the country in an undertaking which so much depended upon their support;" and they voted the society a donation of Rs. 1,000 and an annual grant of Rs. 500. Government also suggested that the society should unite with the more general society established at the Presidency, and this course was ultimately adopted.

Dr. Wilson.

In 1829 the Scottish Missionary Society in the Southern Konkan was reinforced by the arrival of the Reverend (now better known as Dr.) John Wilson. After a few months' study of the Maráthi and Hindustáni languages, Dr. Wilson removed to the capital of the Presidency, where for upwards of 40 years he took a most distinguished part in the work of native education. But his literary and scholastic labours and the profound respect which he won from all classes of the people throughout the province are too well known to need particular mention in this report. It will be sufficient if we note briefly and generally the educational progress made by the society during the earlier portion of his career.

* In 1827 the Society changed its name to "Bombay Native Education Society," and in 1840 it merged in a Board of Education.

In 1829-30 Dr. and Mrs. Wilson established in Bombay six schools for native girls. The number of pupils in them soon rose to 200. In 1832 Dr. Wilson started a boys' school in which the Vernacular and English languages were taught; and six years afterwards, on the arrival in India of the Reverend John Murray Mitchell, the school was organised on a more extensive scale. By the year 1850 the number of pupils in the institution and in the schools ancillary to it was 1,226. It may here be noticed that eleven years later it became the foundation from which the Free General Assembly's Institution arose. But whilst extending education in Bombay and the Konkan, the claims of the Deccan were not forgotten. In 1832 the society established their first school in Poona. By 1840 the number of their schools in and around Poona had increased to 16, five of them being for girls, many of whom belonged to Bráhman families of the highest social standing. The number of pupils in the Poona schools in 1845 is reported to have been 800.

The London Missionary Society.

Meanwhile another missionary society had been working in a different field north of Bombay. The London Missionary Society began operations in Gujaráth in 1820. They established four schools at Surat; and in one of them English was taught. The Judge of Surat in a report to Government on the state of education in the district mentions that these schools were (1824) skilfully organised and well attended. The society also maintained a few vernacular schools in outlying villages for the children of Christian converts and of Hindus of the lowest castes. Some years later the society handed over their schools in Gujaráth to the Irish Presbyterian Mission, and devoted their exclusive attention to the southern districts of the Presidency.

The Irish Presbyterian Missionary Society.

The latter society in or about 1841 extended their labours to Káthiáwár. Vernacular schools were opened at Rájkot, Junágad, Gogha and Porebandar; and at the first three places they had English schools. The English school at Rájkot is said to have been eventually closed on the opening of a similar school there by the Government of the Native State.

Church Missionary Society.

In the year 1820 the Church Missionary Society opened their first school at Bombay, and began to compile a series of moral class-books. Two years later they had opened six elementary schools which were attended by 120 pupils. Their first school for native girls was established in 1826. In the course of the next ten years the society opened separate elementary schools for boys and girls at Thána, Bassein, and Násik. At the last mentioned place, which at all times has been distinguished for its strong Brahmanical feeling, the schools were particularly flourishing. The girls' school, under Mrs. Farrar, contained in 1835 no less than 75 children. The boys' school contained 299 pupils. In 1837 an Anglo-Vernacular school was established in Bombay to perpetuate the name of Robert Cotton Money, a former benefactor of the society; and with the funds raised for the purpose a spacious building was erected 20 years later, and still stands on the verge of the Esplanade. The society's schools in Bombay and Násik continued to make a steady advance up to the year 1840; when, in consequence of the baptism of two of the pupils, the number on the school-rolls fell suddenly from 1,088 to 580. Seven years afterwards the number of pupils in the Bombay schools rose to 898, 223 of these being girls. Soon after this recovery, the society established schools at Junnar in the Poona district and Málegaon in the Násik district, and a little later on in Sind. The society's report for 1852 shows that the Bombay schools had made a marked advance. The Robert Money School at this time contained 405 pupils; and the vernacular schools 670 boys and 384 girls. The operations of the missionaries at Násik also continued to be successful. An English school was now maintained there; and there were five vernacular schools, an orphanage, and a school of industry. The Educational Inspector, Captain Lester, who visited these institutions in 1855, describes them as "well conducted and in good order; the attendance large and pretty regular; and the general attainments of the scholars in secular learning satisfactory, and much on a par with what is generally met with in our own vernacular schools."

The Poona College.

Whilst primary education was thus being fostered and extended from the Konkan to Sind and the Dec-

can mainly by missionary enterprise, higher education was not neglected by the British Government. A college for the encouragement of the study of Sanskrit and of ancient Hindu literature and science was opened by the British Government at Poona in 1821. The college began with nearly 100 students, and was maintained at an annual cost of Rs. 15,250, which was distributed as follows:—

Salary of the Principal at Rs. 100 per mensem	Rs.	1,200
Salary of the 18 Shástris and assistants at Rs. 625 per mensem	„	7,500
Stipends of 86 scholars at Rs. 5 each per mensem	„	5,160
Clerical and menial establishment and contingencies	„	1,080
Allowance for Vyáspuja	„	150
Allowance for Ganpati	„	100
Allowance for Diwáli Festival	„	60
		15,250

The college was, however, not at first successful; and in 1823 the Court of Directors suggested that it should be closed.* But the Honourable Mountstuart Elphinstone, the Governor of Bombay, was strongly opposed to its abolition. He maintained that the institution had been founded for the conciliation of a large and influential section of the people, and that, when once the college had become an established place of resort for Bráhmans, it would be easy to introduce such gradual improvements in its organisation as would make the institution a powerful instrument for the diffusion of knowledge and for the encouragement of the learning of the country. In an exhaustive minute on this question he said—

"One of the principal objects of the Peshwa's Government was the maintenance of the Bráhmans. It is known to the Honourable Court that he annually distributed five lákhs of rupees among that order under the name of Dakshiná, but it must be observed that the Dakshiná formed but a small portion of his largesses to Bráhmans; and the number of persons devoted to Hindu learning and religion, who were supported by him, exceeded what would readily be supposed. With all the favour that we have shown this class of dependants, great numbers of them are reduced to distress and are subsisting on the sale-proceeds of shawls and other articles which they received in better times; while others have already reached the extremity of want, which follows the consumption of all their former accumulation. Considering the number and influence of this description of people, it surely cannot be reckoned unimportant towards influencing public opinion that such a sum as could be spared should be set aside for their maintenance; and, as it is the object of our enemies to inculcate the opinion that we wish to change the religion and manners of the Hindus, it seems equally popular and reasonable to apply part of that sum to the encouragement of their learning."

Further on he states that this encouragement given by the Peshwas—

"may not have been judiciously directed, but the effects of it on the whole were beneficial and such as I cannot but think that it is still desirable to preserve. A class of men was maintained whose time was devoted to the cultivation of their understanding. Their learning may have been obscure and degenerate, but still it bore some affinity to real science, into which it might in time have been improved. They were not perhaps much inferior to those monks among whom the seeds of European learning were long kept alive; and their extinction, if it did not occasion the loss of much present wisdom, would have cut off all hope for the future."

In deference to Mr. Elphinstone's protest, as well as to his unrivalled knowledge of the temper and capacity of the people of the Deccan, the Court of Directors did not press their objection to the continuance of the college; and it will presently be shown how far these expectations regarding the future usefulness of the Poona College were realised.

The Native Education Society's report on Education in 1823.

Soon after the Bombay Native School-book and School Society became a separate corporation, they appointed a special committee to examine the system of education prevailing in the province and to suggest measures for its improvement and extension. In 1823 the committee reported as radical defects the want of books, method, teachers and funds. They suggested the vernacular school-books which were immediately required, and the rules and principles by which the compilers and translators should be guided. They recommended that six intelligent natives should be trained in the Lancastrian system of teaching and should then introduce it into the schools of certain districts, to which they were to be appointed Superintendents. The society laid the report before the Government of Bombay, and asked for assistance from State funds.

* In this Despatch the Court also vetoed the proposal of the Local Government to found an Arts College at Bombay.

Mr. Elphinstone's Minute.

Mr. Elphinstone's Minute on the report, which has never apparently been published *in extenso*, took a wider range than that of the document before him and discussed in a broad and liberal spirit the whole question of native education in its relation to the State and to private enterprise. He said:

"I have attended, as far as was in my power since I have been in Bombay, to the means of promoting education among the natives; and from all that I have observed and learned by correspondence, I am perfectly convinced that without great assistance from Government no progress can be made in that important undertaking. A great deal appears to have been performed by the Education Society in Bengal, and it may be expected that the same effects should be produced by the same means at this Presidency. But the number of Europeans here is so small, and our connection with the natives so recent, that much greater exertions are requisite on this side of India than on the other. The circumstance of our having lately succeeded to a Bráhman Government, likewise, by making it dangerous to encourage the labours of the missionaries, deprives the cause of education of the services of a body of men who have more zeal and more time to devote to the object than any other class of Europeans can be expected to possess. If it be admitted that the assistance of Government is necessary, the next question is how it can best be afforded; and there are two ways which present themselves for consideration. The Government may take the education of the natives entirely on itself or it may increase the means and stimulate the exertions of the society already formed for that purpose. The best result will probably be produced by a combination of these two modes of proceeding. Many of the measures necessary for the diffusion of education must depend on the spontaneous zeal of individuals and could not be effected by any Resolutions of the Government. The promotion of those measures therefore should be committed to the society. But there are others which require an organised system and a greater degree of regularity and permanence than could be expected from any plan, the success of which is to depend upon personal character. This last branch, therefore, must be undertaken by Government."

The minute next discusses the measures requisite for the diffusion of knowledge in the province. These were briefly (1) more vernacular schools, cheap school-books, and an improved system of teaching; (2) an English school at Bombay; (3) colleges for instruction in European science and discovery, as soon as the system of education should have taken firm root; (4) incitements to the people to avail themselves of the instruction offered in the several classes of schools. Indirectly the Government might improve existing agencies by grants-in-aid to the Education Society; but the direct action of Government should be specially devoted to the foundation and maintenance of new schools. Mr. Elphinstone continued his argument in these words—

"The country is at present exactly in the state in which an attempt of the sort is likely to be most effectual. The great body of the people are quite illiterate, yet there is a certain class in which men capaple of reading, writing, and instructing exist in muchg reater numbers than are required or can find employment. This is a state of things which cannot long continue. The present abundance of people of education is owing to the demand there was for such persons under the Marátha Government. That cause has now ceased. The effect will soon follow: and, unless some exertion is made by the Government, our country will certainly be in a worse state under our rule than it was under the Peshwas. I do not confine this observation to what is called learning, which in its present forms must unavoidably fall off under us; but to the humbler arts of reading and writing, which if left to themselves, will decline among the Bráhmans without increasing among the other castes.

"The advantage of the present time is not confined to the facility of finding masters. The funds are more easily obtained at present than they will be hereafter. The Gáv Kharch (village expenses for charities, amusements, &c.,) except in the old districts have not yet undergone regulation; and many Varshásans, and Nemnúks, allowances to fakirs, &c., might now be turned to this useful purpose that will soon be lost altogether."

Mr. Elphinstone suggested that all contributions from these local funds towards education should be taken from the gross income of the village before the Government share was separated, so as to avoid the semblance of a too close connection between schools and taxation; and he further proposed to supplement such local contributions with other specified funds, which had hitherto been drawn from the Government treasury for objects that were of no utility and that were equally lost to the State and to the people. All schools so aided were to be placed under the general supervision of the district collectors, who would have power to resume the grants in cases of gross neglect.

As to immediate measures the collectors were to report on the existing number of schools and scholars in each district; and the Native Education

Society's proposals were to be liberally supported. There were also other means proposed for the execution of this comprehensive scheme, into which it is unnecessary here to enter.

Owing, however, to a difference of opinion in the Council, only a small part of Mr. Elphinstone's scheme was immediately carried out.* A grant of Rs. 600 per mensem was made to the Native Education Society; the cost of compiling and printing the society's school-books was undertaken by the Government, and reports on the number and condition of indigenous vernacular schools throughout the Presidency were called for from the district officers. The reports received from the judges and collectors roughly estimated the number of indigenous schools to be 1,500 and the number of children attending them 31,000, but they also showed that education was at a very low ebb throughout the country. "There was an immense number of entire mahâls without any schools whatever, and the number of villages destitute of schools was greater beyond all comparison than the number which possessed them. The instruction imparted in the schools extended, with very limited exceptions, to the rudiments of writing and ciphering necessary for the business of a shop-keeper or talâti; and a small proportion of the people acquired even this knowledge."

No systematic action was taken by the Court of Directors on these reports, though several of the district officers recommended it, and offered their services for the promotion of any scheme that might be sanctioned.

Arabic College at Surat.

One of these reports showed that the Muhammadans of Gujaráth had already turned their attention to higher education. In 1809 an Arabic College had been founded at Surat by Muhammadans of the Borah caste. In 1824 it was in considerable repute and was attended by 125 students, many of whom came from distant parts of the country, and were boarded on the college-premises. The annual expenditure on the college is stated to have been Rs. 32,000. Mr. Anderson, the district judge, writes:—"I have visited the institution on two or three occasions, and have always found the business of the college going on. The scholars are taught in classes by some Arabic work being explained in Hindustâni by the maulvie. Those not in the classes were employed in their rooms, in which I observed various books and everything to denote habits of study. The whole institution is very creditable, and shows what can be effected with proper means." The Madrasa, when seen by Mr. Hope in 1855, was found to be still in a flourishing condition. But secular studies never forming more than a nominal part of the college curriculum, the institution was never considered to be entitled to any aid from Government. Of late years the Madrasa has fallen into decay. Nominally there are 10 pupils in attendance, but they get no instruction of any kind. With such antecedents it will be a subject for regret if the revival of this once noble foundation on a partially secular basis

* It is remarkable that no claim was made by the Local Government at this important juncture for any portion of the lakh of rupees which the East India Company were required by the charter of 1813 to set apart annually for education. The evidence of Sir Charles Treveleyan, Mr. W. W. Bird, and Mr. C. H. Cameron, before a Select Committee of the House of Lords in 1852-53 is worth quoting in this connection.

"*1. Lord Monteagle of Brandon.*—In your official capacity on the Council of Education you had occasion to consider how far the obligations of that statute [regarding the lákh of rupees for education] had been fulfilled and acted upon. Will you state in what year that enquiry took place, and what was the result of that examination?

"*Sir C. Trevelyan*†.—A Committee of Instruction was appointed in the year 1823, and the lákh of rupees was accounted for to the Committee from the year 1821; so that a lákh of rupees annually is still due from the year 1813 to 1821, with compound interest.

"*2. Lord Monteagle of Brandon.*—Are you aware how it happened that from the year 1813 to 1824, that lákh of rupees was never paid or applied for the purposes for which it was intended?

"*Mr. W. W. Bird*†.—I think it was because there were no Educational establishments.

"*Lord Monteagle.*—Still, up to the year 1824, although Parliament in the last Act but one had expressly directed the application of this sum, nothing was done upon the subject.

"*Mr. W. W. Bird.*—No, nothing was done; it was a great oversight, no doubt, in the Government of that day.

"*3. Lord Monteagle.*—When you were at the head of the Council of Public Instruction, did you ever endeavour to obtain the payment of any portion of the arrears of that lákh of rupees which had been left unpaid for so many years?

"*Mr. C. H. Cameron*†.—No; we never did."

† Witness for Bengal.

cannot even now be attempted. The Mulla's resources are believed to be still large; and the college buildings are in good repair.

Native Education Society.

The progress of the Native Education Society from the year 1824 appears to have been steady and uniform. A plot of ground was purchased in the city of Bombay on which was erected a spacious building for the accommodation of their English and central vernacular schools. A European head-master was appointed to the English school in 1825, and the following year 24 trained masters were sent from the Vernacular Department to take charge of primary schools in the Konkan, the Deccan, and in Gujaráth. The society's receipts between August 1st, 1825, and December 31st, 1826, amounted to upwards of a lákh of rupees, more than half of this sum being donations and subscriptions from native gentlemen. The expenditure during this period was Rs. 1,01,967, nearly Rs. 35,000 of this sum being for school-buildings in Bombay, and Rs. 16,000 the cost of printing and publishing school-books.

Much of this progress was due to the encouragement which the society received from Mr. Mountstuart Elphinstone, who was an advocate of higher as well as of vernacular education. On his retirement from the Government of Bombay, only nine years after the fall of the last Peshwa, the native princes and chiefs of the Deccan vied with each other in raising a memorial to perpetuate their appreciation of his personal character and to connect his name with a further extension of high education.

The Elphinstone Professorships.

At a meeting held at the capital on August 28th, 1827, it was resolved that a fund should be raised and invested in Government securities "from the interest of which one or more professorships (to be denominated the Elphinstone Professorships and to be held by gentlemen from Great Britain until the happy period arrive when natives shall be perfectly competent to hold them) might be established under the Bombay Native Education Society for teaching the English language and the arts, sciences, and literature of Europe." Rs. 50,276 were subscribed on the spot, and the subscriptions ultimately reached the sum of Rs. 2,28,721, the Rája of Sátára heading the list with a subscription of Rs. 17,000. This sum afterwards accumulated to Rs. 4,43,901.

The foundation of the Presidency College.

The Court of Directors gave no reluctant assent to the measures which were necessary to give effect to a public feeling which was so strongly expressed and was honourable alike to the native community and a distinguished servant of the Company. They authorised the foundation of the Elphinstone College and expressed a hope that it would be instrumental in raising up a "class of persons qualified by their intelligence and morality for high employment in the civil administration of India." Mr. Elphinstone was empowered to select the first professors, and in 1834 the Bombay Government undertook the general superintendence of the college and to defray all expenditure in excess of the income derived from the fees and endowment-funds. The amount of this subsidy was Rs. 22,000 per annum, and it was continued at this rate down to the year 1864. The immediate control of the college was vested in a Council of nine trustees. Suitable professors were selected. Dr. Harkness and Mr. Orlebar arrived from England in 1835, and at the beginning of the following year with Mr. Bál Gangádhar Shástri as assistant professor, the first lectures were delivered in English literature and modern science.* In its first year the college was endowed with twelve scholarships, founded in honour of Sir Edward West, a former Chief Justice of Bombay. Notwithstanding these endowments and the éclat of its foundation the Elphinstone College did not prosper. It was not placed under the management of the Native Education Society, and thus the college and the society's central English schools, which were its main feeders, necessarily exhibited the usual results of divided counsel and dual management. Government resolved therefore to unite the two classes of institutions, and in April 1840 the school and college-classes were united into one institution, called the Elphinstone Institution and placed under a Board of Education, which consisted of three mem-

The Native Education Society's operations.

* The college classes were accommodated in the Town Hall.

bers appointed by Government and three by the Native Education Society as its final act. The English classes of the institution after the amalgamation contained 681 pupils, of whom 341 paid a fee of one rupee monthly.

The Board of Education henceforth played the most important part in the history of education in Bombay. It became in fact what the Department of Public Instruction afterwards became, the central organizing power which directed and supervised the extension of education in all its grades throughout the Presidency. Other events, besides the failure of the Elphinstone College, had induced the Government of Bombay to look elsewhere than to their heavily worked district officers for efficient supervision over the spread of education. The Collectors of districts had failed to take an effective interest in primary schools, and a change of policy was imperatively called for. As early as 1825 the Government of Bombay had begun to establish primary schools at its own expense in district towns and had placed the masters (who had been trained by the Native Education Society) under the general supervision of the district collectors.

The authority of the collector was some time afterwards extended in the Northern Division.

In 1832 the Native Education Society relinquished all executive connection with the district schools in Gujaráth and its head inspector was placed under the orders of the principal collector of Surat. "The effects of this measure appear to have been most pernicious. The collectors regarded the schools as of trivial importance, and neither took pains to remove the indifference of the people with regard to them nor gave any instructions for the guidance of the inspector. The latter persevered, indeed, in visiting the schools and applying to the collectors for books and necessaries; but his applications were disregarded, and the masters, finding that he had no power over them, obeyed or neglected his instructions according to their inclination."*

The unsatisfactory state of affairs thus described was terminated by the transfer to the Board of the primary schools which the district officers neglected.

The failure of the Elphinstone College and of the District Government schools for primary instruction were not the only reasons for entrusting the Board with full authority. The Native Education Society, out of which the Board sprang, had shown high qualifications for the exercise of enlarged powers. Their central English school in Bombay, since the arrival of Messrs. Henderson and Bell, had become very flourishing. The school gave instruction not only in literature, history, and mathematics, but also in physical and medical science. At a public examination of the classes in 1839 the school was found to be in a state of high efficiency, and one of the examiners, Dr. J. Murray Mitchell, concluded his report with these words: "As one who firmly holds that education merely secular is an equivocal boon to India, permit me to add that what was most gratifying of all was the correct judgment on *moral* points which the pupils evinced. In the subjects of the character and providence of God the answers returned were equally explicit and just." The capacity of the managers of the Native Education Society had further been proved by the publication of nearly 50,000 useful volumes, and though some of them, like Molesworth's Marathi-English Dictionary, a large and scholarly work, sold slowly, the greater portion of their publications had been distributed over the country. They had also supplied a large number of vernacular books to the native regimental schools. The Government of Bombay had assisted the society in its work of distributing text-books. In the five years, 1826—1830, Government expended on the preparation and printing of school-books and prizes Rs. 2,01,923, or an average of Rs. 40,000 per annum. The profits of publication went to the society. In 1832 the Earl of Clare expressed some alarm at the expense which had been incurred by Government, and whilst he made a special grant of Rs. 32,128 for books then in course of preparation, he fixed the annual grant to the society for the future at Rs. 20,000.

The Board of Education.

The Board of Education, now constituted, as already described, of three members appointed by Government and three members appointed by the Native Education Society, entered upon important functions. It took over all the Education Society's vernacular schools in Bombay and the mofussil. It also assumed the

* Report of Mr. T. C. Hope, Educational Inspector, Gujaráth Division, for 1855-56.

management of the Poona Sanskrit College, of the English schools at Poona, Thána, and Panvel, and of all the Government vernacular schools in the province. For the better control of education the Board in 1842 arranged their schools in three territorial divisions. The first district consisted of the Deccan and Khándesh; the second of the Northern Konkan and Gujaráth; and the third of the Southern Konkan and the Southern Marátha Country. A European inspector with a native assistant was placed in charge of each division; and every English and vernacular school was furnished with printed regulations relating to school management. The Board also established in many places English and Vernacular school-committees, composed of three or four persons possessed of local influence. They further undertook to open a vernacular school in any village containing not less than 2,000 inhabitants, provided the people would give, furnish, and afterwards keep in repair, a suitable school-house; and would engage that each pupil should pay a monthly fee of one anna, except in cases of well-ascertained poverty. The English schools they considered should represent the "secondary schools" of a system of national education analogous in position to the gymnasia of Germany and to the grammar-schools of England. They accordingly prescribed an entrance-examination test; levied a higher fee; and provided free studentships for poor and deserving boys from Vernacular schools.

In the upper division of the Elphinstone Institution the Board possessed the nucleus of the highest department of education, and in 1844 they added to it a class for instruction in surveying and civil engineering under a professor specially engaged by the Court of Directors from England.* Two years later a professor of botany and chemistry was appointed.

The supply of trained masters was considered to be sufficiently provided for by the Poona normal class and the Elphinstone Institution.

The school-book depositories were re-organized; and for the preparation of English and Vernacular text-books a special committee was appointed and instructed to co-operate with the Council of Education in Bengal, as had been already suggested by Lord Auckland in his Minute of the 24th of November 1839.

The first rural schools.

After improving the machinery of higher education and providing schools for the urban population, the Board next turned their attention to the scattered rural communities. Their report for 1840-41 contains an interesting description of the first attempt made in this Presidency to give education to the agricultural and labouring classes. In the year 1836 the Government had permitted Captain Shortrede, then Assistant to the Collector of Poona, to establish village schools in the Purandhar Táluka; and when Captain Candy, the Superintendent of the Deccan Division, visited them in 1840, he found them in a most flourishing condition. They were housed in dharmshálas or temples, or in the verandahs of private buildings; and they were attended by 1,058 children, mostly of the labouring and agricultural classes. All that was aimed at was to teach the pupils to read, write and keep accounts, so that they might in after-life be able to protect themselves from fraud and imposition. One-half of the children in the 62 schools visited by Captain Candy were able to read and write, the others being still at their lessons on sand-boards. The master submitted monthly reports countersigned by the pátil and kulkarni; and the chief schoolmaster of the district was employed in moving from school to school to see that his subordinates were doing their duty. The schools were maintained at a yearly cost to Government of Rs. 7,380. But Captain Candy pointed out that if this useful system of schools was to be extended, it would be advisable to employ the village Joshi as the schoolmaster, as he could without objection be remunerated out of the village funds. This was part of the scheme that had been proposed by Mr. Mountstuart Elphinstone in 1823; but the Government found on making

* Professor Pole, now Consulting Engineer to the Japanese Government. Captain George Jervis, R.E., had established an Engineer's School at Bombay in 1824, which was attended by 36 native and 14 European or Eurasian pupils. The institution grew and ultimately cost Government Rs. 35,000 annually. It was transferred to Poona in 1830, and was there organized on a less costly scale.

enquiries in 1842 that many of the Joshis declined to act, and that an extension of the system was in consequence too costly to be carried out.

Indigenous Schools.

The Board of Education, however, were anxious to extend their system; and, in order to determine what were the probable wants of the Presidency, they took a school census in the year 1842,* by which it was ascertained that there were in all 1,420 indigenous schools in the province attended by upwards of 30,000 scholars, or 13 per cent. of the total number of male children between 10 and 5 years of age. They made a similar enquiry in 1847, from which it appeared that indigenous schools had increased to 1,751 and the children attending them to 38,267. Owing to want of funds no practical results came of these enquiries.

The Poona Sanskrit College.

The Poona Sanskrit College had been remodelled in 1834; and from the year 1837, when Captain Candy was appointed superintendent, it began to make steady progress. Sir Robert Grant, the Governor of Bombay, took a warm interest in the college. At his instance the Board re-established the medical class, and directed that the students should combine the study of European medical works with the study of the useful portion of their own Sanskrit treatises. A Bráhman doctor in Poona, of great repute for his skill in surgical operations and for his knowledge of the Sanskrit treatises on medicine, was appointed to the college staff. Sir Robert Grant also caused a vernacular department to be added to the college in the year 1837.

Captain Candy's report for 1840-41 gives a list of ex-students which shows that out of 112 men who had left the college since its foundation, 25 had obtained employment in the Revenue and Judicial Departments or in Native States; 21 were engaged in independent professions or in trade; and 37 were employed as masters or private tutors.

In 1851-52 the separate English and normal (vernacular) schools at Poona were amalgamated with the Sanskrit and Vernacular College, and thus was laid the foundation of the present Arts College which rose in 1857 and was affiliated with the Bombay University in 1860.

Grant Medical College.

Although it lies somewhat beyond the scope of the Commission's enquiries it may here be added that the Grant Medical College at Bombay was founded in 1845, half the cost of the building being met by a popular subscription in honour of the late Governor, Sir Robert Grant, and half by the Court of Directors. The college started with ample endowments for scholarships and prizes; and through the munificence of Sir Jamsetji Jijibhái a hospital capable of accommodating 300 in-patients was built the same year in close proximity to the college building. The Medical and Physical Society had come into existence in 1836; and it was by their energetic action, as well as by the deep interest taken in the medical education of the natives by Sir Robert Grant, that the first success of the college was assured.†

The Government subsidy to education.

In 1842 the Government subsidy to the Board of Education was fixed by the Court of Directors at Rs. 1,45,000. This sum included Rs. 22,000 to the Elphinstone funds, Rs. 2,756 to the West and Clare Scholarship Endowments, and Rs. 20,000 from the Dakshina fund for the maintenance of the Poona Sanskrit College.

* An estimate in 1828 showed 1,680 schools and 33,000 scholars. Sir J. Malcolm was then of opinion that it would be highly inexpedient to interfere in any way with these institutions, as it would excite feelings of hostility to the efforts which the Bombay Government were making for the education of the people.

† The first medical school in this Presidency was established by the Government in 1825 under the supervision of Surgeon McLennan, whose excellent knowledge of the native languages enabled him not only to attend to his pupils but to translate a considerable number of medical treatises. (Minute by Sir John Malcolm, November 30th, 1830.) This school was ill-advisedly closed a few years before the foundation of the Medical and Physical Society.

Sir Erskine Perry succeeded to the presidency of the Board of Education in 1843; and during the nine years that he held that office he gave a somewhat new direction to the Board's policy. He was a strong advocate of the English schools and of the "filtration theory" of education. His view was that "it was better to concentrate on the higher education of the few the strength of a grant which was quite inadequate to make any impression on the masses; but he was anxious to open that higher education to the poor and to encourage a thorough study of the vernacular *pari passu* with English."

Sir Erskine Perry.

This policy, however, encountered strong opposition from Colonel Jervis and other members of the Board, who maintained, as Mr. Mountstuart Elphinstone and Sir John Malcolm had done 20 years before, that the direct extension of vernacular education was the most pressing necessity of the time. Speaking of this conflict of opinion before a Select Committee of the House of Lords in 1853, Sir Erskine Perry said: "We had a great controversy and in fact at one time the Vernacular party to the exclusion of English were very near carrying the day. I was about to resign my post, being a strong advocate for the English system; but I was persuaded by my colleagues to remain, at a considerable sacrifice to my own personal feelings; but I did so for the purpose of not allowing the contrary system to be carried into effect." That Sir Erskine Perry's views ultimately prevailed is seen in the fact that during his nine years' administration only 43 vernacular schools were opened, while the number of English (or rather Anglo-vernacular) schools and scholars was doubled. The figures are:—

Class of School.	Number of Schools.		Number of Scholars.	
	1844.	1852.	1844.	1852.
Anglo-vernacular	5	10	1,061	2,128
Vernacular	192	235	9,912	11,629

It would be difficult, however, to show that the funds which were then available could have been better spent. The means necessary for commencing any comprehensive scheme of national education did not exist. The wealthy classes for the most part held aloof; and the Government strictly limited its subsidy to less than a lakh and a half of rupees. Vernacular literature still contain little that was suitable for school purposes;* and there were not 50 trained schoolmasters in the whole Presidency. But the Board did its best to create those means by opening schools wherever they could be efficiently managed; by preparing elementary school-books; and by annually asking for more money. "It cannot be expected," wrote the Board in 1851, "that a population of 10 millions can be regenerated on a lakh and a half per annum; and we trust we may be excused for suggesting to Government that no worthier object presents itself for a portion of the lapsed pension of the late Peshwa† than the extension of education amongst the people he formerly governed." There can be no doubt also that the Board's schools were efficient, and that they raised up a body of educated men who, a few years later, as teachers, inspecting-officers and translators, became the mainstay of our system of vernacular education. A Haileybury civilian,‡ who was well acquainted with the Elphinstone Institution during the Board's *régime*, stated that "the native youths annually sent forth from it into the world need not fear to challenge the Haileybury boys to a contest in every branch of education except the study of Greek and Latin, which have not been introduced here."§

* "The true literature of the Maráthas is to be found in their songs of which immense collections might be made if sufficient encouragement were afforded and in which alone the genuine expression of their feelings and tone of thought is to be found. Mr. Morphy, the Translator in the Supreme Court, has made a catalogue of such of these as he knows of, either in his own library or in native collections, and he estimates the amount of them at 700,000 shlokas or verses."—*Report of the Board of Education for 1845.*

† Rs. 9,00,000 lapsed to the State by the death of the Ex-Peshwa in January 1851.

‡ The Honourable Mr. Warden.

§ See Report by Board of Education for 1852-53, page 119.

A substantial proof of the soundness of the education then imparted in the Elphinstone Institution is to be seen in the intellectual activity displayed by its students and assistant teachers. Without any pecuniary aid either from Government or from the Board, they founded and successfully maintained for several years in Bombay a Mental Improvement Society with a view to the dissemination of knowledge by means of vernacular lectures, discussion on scientific and social subjects, and the publication of cheap periodicals in the vernacular languages. They also* entirely supported nine vernacular free schools for girls, which contained upwards of 650 pupils. These schools still exist; and they are an interesting monument of enlightened zeal that was somewhat in advance of its own time.

It may further be noted as an indirect result of the Board's operations that in the year 1849 there were established at the Presidency no less than nine private English schools, all maintained as a commercial speculation. In addition to this Mahomed Ibrahim Mukba, a member of the Board of Education, for many years supported at his own entire charge Hindustáni schools among the Muhammadans. In 1851 Mr. Maganbhái Karamchand gave Rs. 20,000 as an endowment fund for the foundation of two girls' schools at Ahmedabad. The same year the people of Dhulia, in Khandesh, subscribed Rs. 21,000 towards a school fund; and Mr. Joti Govindráo Phule opened a private girls' school at Poona. The activity of the Missionary Societies at this period has already been described; but it should be here mentioned that it was to their persistent encouragement of female education that the success of the efforts now made by the natives themselves was partly due.

Progress of the Board after Sir E. Perry's retirement.

The operations of the Board of Education after Sir Erskine Perry's retirement† in 1852 may be briefly sketched. The progress of primary education, retarded during his presence on the Board partly by his advocacy of higher education and partly by want of funds, was renewed. In 1852-53 the Board established an Anglo-vernacular School at Sátára with a system of village schools ancillary to it; they took a similar step at Rájkot in Káthiáwár. They also offered small grants-in-aid to the masters of indigenous village schools. Appointments in the lower grades of the public service were thrown open to competition at biennial examinations held in each collectorate by the district officers in association with the educational inspectors. In the next year the service of educational employés was declared to be pensionable. The Government also increased its general grants to the Board by Rs. 50,000 and announced its intention of organizing throughout the Presidency a general system of village education. The total subsidy from Government now stood at Rs. 2,50,000—

	Rs.
General Grants	1,75,000
Poona College	30,000
Grant College	28,000
Sátára Schools	7,000
Sind Schools	10,000‡
	2,50,000

In the last year of its administration the Board began to carry out the views of Government regarding primary education. It undertook to open a school in any village in the Presidency, provided the inhabitants would engage to defray half the master's salary and to provide a school-room and class-books. Thirty-five villages immediately applied for schools on these terms, and twenty-five of the demands were complied with. The following year the number of applications in one division alone amounted to no less than 84. The number of English and

* The correspondent of *The Times*, telegraphing on September 17th, 1882, alludes to the exceptional backwardness of Female Education in Bombay. This statement was warmly repudiated at a public meeting held in Poona, and Section E, of Chapter III, will show how little truth there is in the remark.

† On the eve of Sir E. Perry's departure from India the inhabitants of Bombay founded a professorship of jurisprudence at the Elphinstone College as a memorial of his long connexion both with law and education in India.

‡ Sanctioned in 1853.

normal vernacular schools was also increased, and Sind now began to be provided for.* A school for Hindus of the lowest castes was opened in this year at Ahmednagar. The first school of this kind had been established in Poona a few years before by a private person, and the Scottish Mission at Surat had opened similar schools in 1853. The native general libraries patronised by the Education Board amounted to 22; and during the year no less than 46,000 copies of elementary school-books were printed for the book-depositories at Bombay and Poona.

The character of the Board's administration.

When the Board of Education resigned office in May 1855, they were able to show that in their 15 years' administration the expenditure on education, as also the number of schools and scholars, had nearly trebled, and that the quality of the instruction imparted had improved in a still greater degree. With the single exception of girls' schools, which they had left entirely to private enterprise they had laid,—"broad based upon the people's will,"—the foundations of a system of education that was in full accord with the principles of the Education Despatch of 1854. The way had been prepared for a University by the establishment at Bombay and Poona of institutions for imparting instruction in literature, law, medicine, and civil engineering. In every zilla in the Presidency except in Kaira, an English school had been established, as a germ of civilisation,—as a nucleus, to borrow the words of Coleridge, round which the capabilities of the place might crystalise and brighten,—as a model sufficiently superior to excite, yet sufficiently near to encourage, imitation. In the adjacent districts vernacular schools controlled by the Board were springing up on all sides;† while at the same time the indigenous schools were being inspected and encouraged. But the most interesting feature of the last period of the Board's administration was the introduction of the system of primary schools administered by the State, but mainly supported by the people themselves. It was the first clear development of the most important of the principles laid down by Mr. Mountstuart Elphinstone, and it anticipated the policy declared in the Despatch of 1854. It was also accepted by the people at large as a higher extension of their own indigenous system; and, as such, the experiment may be regarded as the germ from which our present system of local-fund schools was derived.

* At the end of 1855 the Sind schools were as follows:—

2 English schools.	23 Vernacular schools.
1 Normal class.	1 Engineering school.

† There were nearly 20,000 children attending these schools at the end of 1854-55.

CHAPTER II.

THE PROGRESS OF EDUCATION FROM 1855 TO MARCH 31ST, 1881.

SECTION I.—*Progress from 1855 to 1865.*

We have described the position of education in the Presidency when the Board of Education resigned their functions in 1855, and the Department of Public Instruction, organized on the basis of the Despatch of the previous year, entered upon their duties. No time was lost by the first Director of Public Instruction, Mr. C. Erskine, C.S., in preparing a well-considered scheme which should give effect to the principles that had been laid down by the Home Government, and would henceforth direct the spread of education in all its branches. The unfortunate retirement of Mr. Erskine before his measures could be carried into practical effect, and the outbreak of the mutiny naturally arrested reforms which depended not merely upon judicious guidance but also on liberal assistance from public funds. The years of comparative rest and check to the spread of education, which necessarily followed, were however not wasted; and although the history of the ten years which succeeded the Despatch is less fruitful in statistics of advancing education than might have been expected, it will require attention because it was a period of discussion and deliberation in which the future course of education in Bombay was shaped. Much was done to improve the existing machinery. The colleges were strengthened and reformed, the duties of inspection and control were clearly defined, and the relation of the various grades of schools to each other prescribed. But this was not all. The question of the relations of Government to primary schools, the attitude of the Department to indigenous institutions, the claims of missionary schools upon assistance from a Government which affirmed a policy of strict neutrality, the special claim of Poona as the capital city of the Maratha Confederacy and the home of the Brahmanical organization for a college of its own, and other questions of future policy were problems which were mooted and threshed out by public discussion under circumstances that afforded every guarantee against hasty conclusion. So far as the active operations of the Department were concerned, the history of the decennial period between 1855—1865 is the record of the development of the departmental system of public instruction by means of an imperial subsidy assisting voluntary popular contributions, managed for the most part by the direct agency of Government, but the discussions of principle in the same period were not less important than the actual operations of the Department: and in the course of this section some account will be given of the treatment which both these matters received.

Constitution of the Educational Department.

The orders of the Governor General in Council on the Education Despatch of 1854 were received by the Bombay Government in February 1855. Three months afterwards the Department of Public Instruction was constituted, Mr. C. J. Erskine of the Bombay Civil Service being appointed the first Director. The inspecting staff consisted of four European inspectors for the Presidency, the Deccan, the Gujarath and the Sind divisions, with eight sub-inspectors, of whom two were Europeans.

In the Elphinstone College there were five professors: and in the Poona College there was a principal, two professors and two assistant professors, exclusive of the Sanskrit Department, in which the chairs of law, grammar, logic, and rhetoric were held by distinguished shastris.

The number of English schools and colleges was 15, with 2,860 scholars; and the vernacular schools managed by the State amounted to 240 with upwards of 19,000 children. There were nine institutions for special or professional education, *viz.*, the Government law school and the Grant medical college, four engineering or mechanical schools, two normal schools and a photography class.

Organization of the Department by Mr. Erskine.

One of Mr. Erskine's first acts on assuming charge was to draw up an Inspection* Code and to instruct his inspectors to take an elaborate school census which was to ascertain—

* The experience of a quarter of a century has found but little to alter in this well-conceived document.

(1) The number, distribution, objects, quality, and management of all Government, indigenous and missionary schools throughout the Presidency.

(2) The number, ages, qualifications, castes, and prospects of the scholars; and the rates of fees paid by them.

(3) The ages, qualifications, salaries, and characters of the schoolmasters; with a description of their methods of teaching.

(4) The names, contents, and nature of the school-books in general use.

(5) General statistical information regarding the condition of the people.

(6) The inducements and obstructions to study in different classes and persuasions; and the desire for knowledge of any kind on the part of any particular communities or castes.

The inspecting officers were to obtain all this varied information by personally visiting every village and school within their respective charges and by conference with the district officers, who had been instructed by the Government to co-operate with the inspectors, not only on this occasion but habitually. The support of influential native gentlemen, whether hereditary officers, landlords or other men of independent means, was also as far as possible to be secured. With this view the existing system of school committees was continued by Mr. Erskine.

The collegiate and secondary institutions established by the Board of Education were accepted by Mr. Erskine as sufficient in number for the immediate wants of the Presidency; but he asked for additional masters and professors from Europe. The extension of primary education on the partially self-supporting system already described in the preceding section, was reaffirmed, not as a pledge that Government was prepared to bear a moiety of the cost of such schools *in perpetuum*, but as an arrangement that was then highly expedient and might continue to be so for perhaps a short term of years. As yet, however, the village schools had not been co-ordered with the higher institutions. "In any national system," wrote Mr. Erskine, "a regular gradation is not less necessary than a wide diffusion of schools; and such gradation can hardly be said to exist at all in this country at present, although in this country it is peculiarly required; for there is here a great danger, on the one hand, of being too easily satisfied with the multiplication of a very inferior class of schools, just adapted to meet, and perhaps to perpetuate, the traditional educational prejudices of uninstructed men; and, on the other hand, of attempting too hastily to multiply English schools of a high order, and so pitching our standard of instruction so far above the level of those who are to benefit by it that we may deprive our institutions of their sympathies and support. Both extremes are to be avoided only by a just gradation of schools and careful selections of localities for individual schools of each grade."

Mr. Erskine accordingly proposed to organize the following system of Vernacular and English institutions:—

(1) The *Indigenous Primary School*, which by the offer of a grant, equivalent to half the master's salary, was to be encouraged to place itself under the control of the Educational Department, either as a village school or as a feeder of a village school.

(2) The *Village School*, to be established, aided,* and controlled by the Department, in the proportion of one to every 2,000 inhabitants or to every district having a radius of two miles; to teach reading, writing, arithmetic and accounts, the zilla map with the rudiments of useful knowledge and the science of common things, and a little singing and drawing. The monthly fee to be one anna and the school course to extend to 3 or 4 years.

(3) The *Town School* to be similarly aided and controlled by the Department and to be organized so as to afford a two years' full course in addition to all that could be learned in a village school, and to give the pupils in the highest class the option of learning the rudiments of English. The school fee to be 2 annas per mensem.

* By a grant of half the master's salary.

(4) *The Pargana* or *Táluka School*, which was to be aided and controlled by the Department and to add a two years' full course to that laid down for the town school, its distinctive character being that it would continue the pupil's English and vernacular studies and "afford him the means of industrial training, as in trades and agriculture, and of learning the rules of judicial and revenue practice." The school-fee was to be 4 annas per mensem.

(5) The *Zilla or High School* * in which, while the vernacular studies were not abandoned, there should be a two years' higher and thorough course of English under the ablest teachers. The monthly school-fee to be 8 annas.

(6) The *Colleges* to be affiliated to the four University Faculties of Arts, Law, Medicine and Civil Engineering.

As regards the institutions not yet within the departmental system, there were, besides the indigenous primary schools already referred to, the Vernacular and English schools established in the Political Agencies of the Bombay Presidency, and also those maintained by the missionary and other private societies. The former of these were now placed under the supervision of the educational inspectors, who were to administer them in concert with the political authorities. The latter institutions were to be assisted by grants-in-aid; and Mr. Erskine drew up a code of rules prescribing the conditions under which such grants were to be payable.†

As connecting links between the several grades of departmental and extra-departmental institutions, this draft code provided the following system of stipendiary scholarships:—

There was to be allotted—

(*a*) To each village school a scholarship of Rs. 3 per mensem, tenable for two years in a town school.

(*b*.) To every 50 pupils in each town school a scholarship of Rs. 4 per mensem, tenable for two years in a táluka school.

(*c*.) To every 35 pupils in each táluka school a scholarship of Rs. 5 per mensem, tenable for two years in a zilla school.

(*d*.) To every 35 pupils in a zilla school a scholarship of Rs. 7 per mensem, tenable for 3 years in a college.

Mr. Erskine next turned his attention to the preparation of a detailed scheme of class-books, courses of study and standards of examination. He also prescribed an entrance examination test for the higher-primary and for secondary and collegiate institutions. The importance of increasing the number of trained masters for vernacular schools was not lost sight of. It was proposed that

* The English schools at the time, excluding aided and private schools, were:—

High	1	Elphinstone	Entirely supported by the British Government.
	2	Poona	
	3	Surat	
	4	Ahmedabad	
Middle	5	Broach	
	6	Ratnágiri	
	7	Sátára	
	8	Ahmednagar	
	9	Sholápur	Partly supported by the British Government.
	10	Dhulia	
	11	Dhárwár	
	12	Thána	
	13	Karáchi	
	1	Rájkot	Maintained by Native State Governments.
	2	Bhávnagar	
	3	Godhra	
	4	Junágad	
	5	Pálanpur	
	6	Kolhápur	
	7	Belgaum	

† *See* Appendix to Annual Report for 1856-57, p. 229.

selected youths in each táluka should be apprenticed as pupil-teachers, for three years on stipends rising from Rs. 3 to Rs. 5 per mensem, to the ablest vernacular schoolmasters in the neighbourhood, and that, on successfully passing through their term of apprenticeship, they should be sent up for a further course of instruction on stipends of Rs. 6 per mensem to the District Training College, from which they would eventually return to their respective tálukas as trained teachers. To this end Mr. Erskine proposed to increase the number of Training Colleges and to strengthen those already established by placing them under the charge of experts selected from England.

Such in brief was the system of schools and colleges which Mr. Erskine began to organize on the lines of the Education Despatch of 1854. But the scheme obviously entailed a great expenditure of money. This he proposed to provide for mainly by voluntary popular subscriptions; by assignments from municipalities and the village petty-supply funds, and ultimately by local taxation. He even looked forward to the time when it might be possible to introduce a compulsory Education Act. But in August 1856 Mr. Erskine's health gave way, and he was compelled to resign office without seeing his far-reaching schemes carried into effect.

Mr. Howard's administration.

Mr. E. I. Howard, M.A., Barrister-at-law and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs to the Bombay Government, was appointed his successor. He administered the Department for nearly nine years. His first report on public instruction records the results of the school census which Mr. Erskine had instructed the Educational Inspectors to take in 1855-56. The returns give similar information regarding the status of the indigenous schools to that elicited by the former enquiries to which allusion has already been made. The total number of schools and colleges of all grades throughout the Presidency at the end of the first year of the Department's history may be set down in round numbers at 2,800, and the pupils attending them at 106,000. The inspectors' returns, which unfortunately are incomplete, furnish the statistics of the following summary:—

GENERAL SUMMARY.

	Number of Institutions in 1855.	Number of Pupils attending them in 1855.
I.—Departmental Institutions.		
(Government, Aided and Inspected.)		
(*a*) *Colleges*: Elphinstone College; Poona College; Law School; Grant Medical College	4	225
(*b*)—*English Schools*—(High and Middle).		
British Districts (including Sind)	23	3,183
Political Districts	7	395
Total	30	3,578
(*c*)—*Vernacular Schools*—(Primary.)		
British Districts (including Sind): Boys' Schools	212	17,064
British Districts (including Sind): Girls' Schools	8	605
Political Districts: Boys' Schools	36	2,342
Political Districts: Girls' Schools	. .	. .
Total	256	20,011
(*d*)—*Special Schools.*		
British Districts (including Sind): Training Schools and Classes	5	76
British Districts (including Sind): Engineering Schools and Classes	4	150
British Districts (including Sind): Photography Class	1	39
Total	10	265
Grand Total	300	24,079
II.—Extra-Departmental Institutions.		
(1)—*Indigenous Schools.*		
(*a*)—Hindu.		
Village Day-Schools for boys; Do. Night-Schools do.; Sanskrit Pátsháláś; 4 Singing Schools; 3 Infant Schools; 3 Low-Caste Schools; 3 Bhil Schools — Schools 2,186, Scholars 64,547.	2,387	70,514
(*b*)—Muhammadan.		
165 Mosque-Schools, with 3,519 scholars; Borah Madrasa, Surat, with 200 scholars; Persian Maktab, Junágad, with 19 scholars		
(*c*)—34 Párs Schools, with 2,229 scholars.		
(2)—*Girls' Schools.*		
Sir Jamsetji Jijibhái's Schools, Bombay	3	412
Students' Literary and Scientific Society's Schools, Bombay	9	654
Hindu Schools, Poona	3	168
Ráo Bahádur Maganbhái's Schools, Ahmedabad	2	187
Shetáni Harkuvarbái's School, Ahmedabad	1	143
Girls under instruction in private Boys' Schools	. .	593
	18	2,157

3.—Special, Professional and other Schools.

Sir Jamsetji Jijibhái School of Art and Industry; School of Industry, Siwri (47 pupils); David Sassoon's Reformatory and Industrial Institution (40 pupils); Sir Jamsetji Jijibhái Benevolent Institution, Bombay (566 pupils); Sir Jamsetji Jijibhái Branch English School (105 pupils); Lawrence Asylum, Mount Abu; Prabhu Seminary, Bombay (171 pupils); (Bhátia schools (171 pupils); Students' Literary and Scientific Society's seven schools, Bombay (478 pupils); Portuguese schools in the island of Bombay; Indo-British Institution, Bombay; Orphanage and Girls' schools of the Scottish Ladies' Association, Bombay.

4.—Missionary Institutions.

(*a*) *Free Church of Scotland Mission.*—High School at Bombay (395 pupils); Vernacular schools in Bombay for girls (147 pupils); numerous schools in the districts of Poona, Sátára, and Gujaráth.

(*b*) *Irish Presbyterian Mission.*—Schools in Gujaráth and Káthiáwár.

(*c*) *Church Missionary Society.*—Schools at Násik, Nagar, Málegaon, Junnar and Karáchi. In Bombay a High School (358 pupils) and 12 Vernacular schools with 618 pupils.

(*d*) *London Missionary Society.*—Schools in the Belgaum and Sholápur Districts, and at Borsad and Bailhongal.

(*e*) *American Missionary Society.*—Schools at Bombay, Ahmednagar, &c. At Kolháp ur schools containing 353 boys and 2 girls.

(*f*) *German Mission.*—Schools at Dhárwár, Hubli, &c.

(*g*) *Roman Catholic* School at Belgaum.

The subjoined abstract may be accepted as a moderate estimate of the number and strength of the various classes of institutions,—Government, private, and indigenous—which were then established in the Presidency:—

4	Colleges, with an aggregate of . .	225	pupils.
42	English schools do. . .	5,600	„
2,819	Vernacular schools do. . .	99,950	„
10	Special schools do. . .	265	„
2,875		106,040	

Total girls at school.—
605 Government.
2,157 Private.
1,325 Missionary.
4,087

Boys at school—101,953.

Total population of Presidency, including Political Districts	15,000,000
Population of school-going age—Boys . .	1,125,000
Do do. Girls . .	1,125,000
Percentage of boys of school-going age at school.	9·06
Percentage of girls of school-going age at school	·03

Mr. Erskine's financial proposals were still under discussion with the Government of India, "when the rebellion of 1857 closed the public treasury to all claims except those of war. The seven years that followed were years of dearth; and it was not until the year 1865 that provision was made for several of the wants which Mr. Erskine had declared to be urgent in 1856." The chief object, therefore, to which Mr. Howard had to confine his immediate attention, was to consolidate the existing departmental system,—to prepare the colleges and higher schools for the University and to secure the voluntary aid of the people for the improvement, rather than for the extension, of primary schools.

The University.

The University, though incorporated in 1857, did not hold its first matriculation examination until October 1859. The Senate's draft Code of Bye-laws and Regulations was prepared in 1858; but it differed in certain respects from the Code of the Calcutta University, and was not even partially sanctioned by the Supreme Government until the middle of 1859. Final sanction to the liberty of the Bombay University was accorded in March 1860. The following colleges were then formally recognised by the University:—

Arts .	Elphinstone College, Bombay. Poona College.
Law . .	Government Law School, Bombay.
Medicine . .	Grant Medical College, Bombay.

The Free General Assembly's Institution, Bombay, and the Civil Engineering College (now the College of Science) at Poona, were affiliated in 1861 and 1865 respectively.

The two tables which follow give the results of the University examinations during the first five years:—

TABLE I.—*Matriculation Examination.*

Years.	Number of Institutions sending up Candidates.				Number of Candidates sent up.					Number of Candidates passed.					Religion or National Classification of passed Candidates.					
															Natives of India.					
	Government.	Native States.	Private.	Total.	From Government Schools.	From Schools in Native States.	From Private Schools.	Private Students.	Total.	From Government Schools.	From Schools in Native States.	From Private Schools.	Private Students.	Total.	Christians.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Pársis.	Others.	Europeans.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1859-60	5	...	2	7	122	...	7	...	129	22	...	...	...	22	...	22	...	...	...	...
	2	...	1	3	41	...	5	...	46	14	...	...	...	14	...	12	...	2	...	...
1860-61	3	...	2	5	82	...	4	...	86	37	...	2	...	39	1	19	...	19	...	...
1861-62	8	...	6	14	124	...	20	...	144	28	...	2	...	30	2	17	...	8	2	1
1862-63	5	...	7	12	115	...	25	7	147	54	...	2	...	56	4	40	2	10	...	...
1863-64	11	...	6	17	125	...	22	13	160	52	...	3	1	56	...	42	2	12	...	...
1864-65	18	...	7	25	173	...	49	23	245	86	...	21	2	109	2	86	1	19	...	1
TOTAL	...	...	...	...	782	...	132	43	957	293	...	30	3	326	9	238	5	70	2	2

TABLE II.—*Higher University Examinations.*

		1860-61.		1861-62.		1862-63.		1863-64.		1864-65.	
		Number presented.	Number passed.	Number presented.	Number passed.	Number presented.	Number passed.	Number presented.	Number passed.	Number presented.	Number passed.
Arts	First Arts	...	...	15	7	20	15	22	16	33	15
				9	5						
	B.A.	...	...	6	4	6	3	15	8	20	12
	M.A.	...	...	...	...	...	...	5	2	2	2
Law	LL.B.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Medicine	First L.M.	8	7	3	3	13	5	4	1	6	4
	L.M.	...	...	4	4	3	3	3	3	5	5
	M.D.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Engineering	First C.E.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	L.C.E.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	M.C.E.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	TOTAL	8	7	37	23	42	26	49	30	66	38

In 1862 Mr. Howard expressed the opinion that the University examinations had produced a marked effect on the Government schools and colleges by raising the standard and fixing the aim of their teaching. In view of this opinion the results recorded in the first of the tables just given require some explanation. One of the conditions of the University Entrance test was that the examination in English and in a second language was to be limited to text-books which the candidate had not before read. This obviously made the interpretation of the standard of the written and oral examination a difficult matter both for the schools and for the University examiners, and would doubtless at first lead to errors on both sides. That difficulties of this sort did actually arise is plain from the annual reports on public instruction for that time. At the first matriculation examination, for example, "all the Elphinstone school-boys failed; all the Poona school-boys failed; all the other school-boys in the Presidency failed. Only the college men passed the test." But in his Annual Report for 1859-60 Mr. Howard mentions that no candidate was allowed to pass at this examination who made three bad mistakes in spelling or grammar; and that all

the Pársi candidates, without exception, were plucked because they did not speak and write pure *Hindu* Gujaráthi. The latter case attracted much public attention at the time and was commented on by the Bombay Government in their review of the Director's Annual Report: "What the examiners had really to decide," wrote Sir Bartle Frere, "was whether the candidates had that general degree of proficiency in their own language which would enable them to profit by the teaching of the University. To reject an intelligent Pársi because he did not write and speak Gujaráthi like a Hindu, would be, as if Sir Walter Raleigh were refused admission to Oriel because he spoke broad Devonshire, which he did to the day of his execution; or Adam Smith to Balliol, because he differed from his tutors as to the appropriate allocation of 'will' and 'shall.'"

The Arts Colleges.

About the same time the Arts Colleges became the subject of warm criticism. A special Board of Examiners had given a most unfavourable account of their condition. Mr. Howard wrote of the Elphinstone College—"I am bound to suppose that these papers do not represent the real intellectual condition of these candidates for a degree, or I should say that their college-education had been a mere delusion." Captain Cowper applied even stronger language to the Poona College. On the publication of these reports a large number of students, discouraged by the examiners' very unfavourable opinion of their acquirements, withdrew from the college. The Bombay Government did not, however, wholly accept the view taken by the examiners; and the truth appears to have been that the colleges and attached collegiate schools had fallen below their former standard of efficiency from the want of an adequate staff of European masters and professors to meet their largely increased requirements. This want was at once supplied. Only a year after the issue of his report, Mr. Howard himself, who had now become Director of Public Instruction, reported to Government that the staff of the Elphinstone Institution had been reinforced by the arrival from England of Professors Hughlings, Owen and Rawlinson and of Mr. W. H. Smith, and he added that the institution was working "with great efficiency." The Poona College was similarly strengthened and improved by Mr. Edwin Arnold being appointed its Principal in 1857. The former Principal, Major Candy, (whose multifarious duties were hereafter divided among three separate officers) confined his attention to the duties of the Maráthi Translatorship.

In 1859 Dr. Martin Haug, a scholar well known by his researches in Zoroastrian antiquities, was appointed Professor of Sanskrit in the Poona College, and Dr. Bühler was appointed to a similar professorship at the Elphinstone College in 1863. To Dr. Haug belonged the honour "of organising and almost of creating a genuine study of Sanskrit in Western India. His original investigations into Vedic and Zend antiquity, carried on side by side with his teaching gave him importance among even the Pandits and Dasturs. The English educated natives gladly accepted the methods of scientific philology, and among his pupils are men who combine the accumulated knowledge of the Pandit with the critical acumen of the European Philologist."* Seven years after the appointment of the first Sanskrit Professor Mr. Howard wrote as follows:—

"Sanskrit is now taught in the vernacular colleges and in many schools, English and Vernacular. I believe that the Hindus are much gratified by finding their ancient language in honour. A reflex result has been to diffuse a taste for Sanskrit among the people of Western India. I have before me a rather remarkable proof of this result. In the last monthly catalogue of Oriental literature on sale at a London Publisher's, I find a list of forty-six Sanskrit works all printed in India. Of these, twenty-five come from Calcutta, Benares, and other places, and all the rest from either Bombay or Poona. The dates of the latter (it is important to observe) are with one exception subsequent to 1859. There is nothing in the history of education in the last 10 years that I look back upon with more pleasure than the reform here described."

It was also felt that there was room for Latin, especially for the Pársi students, whose sympathies are generally European rather than Oriental. The study of this language was accordingly introduced into Elphinstone College as a voluntary subject in 1858; and by 1865 it had been introduced at Poona and in several of the high schools. Chemistry, botany, geology had from the first formed part of the curriculum in Elphinstone College; but in 1858 laboratory

* Mr. Howard's Memorandum on Public Instruction in Bombay, 1856—65, p. 8.

instruction in chemistry was added. In extension of the system of endowed scholarships tenable in these two colleges, the Government in this year created five senior and ten junior stipendiary Fellowships worth respectively Rs. 100 and Rs. 50 each per mensem. The object of their foundation was to retain at college for a few years, among the influences of a learned life, the pick of the University graduates, and thus to develop that native tutorial element which has since proved an indispensable complement of every college staff. Sir A. Grant's testimony as to the moral results of this experiment, after it had been in force for more than five years, is worth quoting :—

"These appointments," he said, "form men of cultivation, probity, and self-respect, who are worthy of being placed in situations of responsibility. As far as my experience goes, nothing can be more untrue than the common notion that English education is injurious to the moral principles of Natives. In the college I have invariably found that students improve in trustworthiness and respectability in direct ratio to their improvement as scholars."

About a third of the students in the Elphinstone College were required to reside in the college-building; and Sir A. Grant remarks that the practice, though it had not then been tried with success in any other institution of the kind in India, was carried on "with increased popularity."*

As regards the usefulness of the Elphinstone and Poona Colleges at this time, Mr. Howard wrote :—

"It is objected that superior education is expensive; and, calculations, not of much practical value, are made of the number of primary Government schools that might be set up at the price of one professor. In this Presidency, at all events, there is not much ground for such a complaint on the part of Government. The Elphinstone College is half-supported by the income of private subscriptions and students' fees. The Poona College is almost entirely maintained by an assignment from the "Dakshiná Fund," a charitable grant of the Peshwas, and the contribution of the British Government to the Poona College is, strictly speaking, confined to Rs. 6,420 per annum, the sum allowed to the former Government English School at Poona. In return for these grants (amounting together in 1859-60 to Rs. 23,383) the Government is supplied with the best class of Native servants, and enabled to dispense to a great extent with the costly European agency. Our superior schools are supplied with teachers which we should otherwise be compelled to import from England at a much higher rate of salary; and, finally, we are slowly building up a body of Natives with European ideas, who value education for its own sake and who would make sacrifices to give it to their children. It has been abundantly proved that the most faithful friends of the British Government are to be found in this class, and it should always be remembered that superior education is in all countries the only kind of education that is reproductive."†

Mr. Erskine's scheme for co-ordering the several grades of institutions by means of entrance-tests was not fully carried out until 1865-66. In that year the Government colleges were strong enough to limit their lectures to students who had passed the matriculation examination of the Bombay University; for since 1862 the Elphinstone College had greatly advanced under the extremely able administration and teaching of Sir Alexander Grant, formerly a Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford; and the college at Poona had from the same date been fortunate to secure the services of Mr. William Wordsworth, B.A., of Balliol College. The Elphinstone and Poona High Schools also had greatly advanced in efficiency; and in all the high schools, indeed, it was now found possible to enforce an entrance-standard and thus give a definite aim to the studies of the school of the next lower grade.

Scholarships in secondary and collegiate institutions.

The junior scholarships‡ at the Poona and Elphinstone Colleges were thrown open to competition in 1858 and attracted clever and industrious youths from Government and private schools in all parts of the Presidency. In 1861 Mr. Howard also organised a small system of open exhibitions or scholarships in high or 1st grade middle schools. The total number of these exhi-

* This plan has been found most beneficial of late years in the Elphinstone, Poona, and St. Xavier Colleges.

† "Where would national education now be in Europe if the money spent on Oxford and Paris and Bologna had been laid out in Dames' schools? And even now the real promoters of popular education in England are not small farmers and shop-keepers, but the noble and learned, bred by our great Universities."

‡ *Viz.*, 13 at Elphinstone and 8 at Poona.

bitions was 142, and their aggregate value Rs. 546 per mensem. They were intended to be connecting links between primary, middle, and high schools; but the chief object aimed at was the encouragement of indigent scholars of promise from isolated or backward districts. There were no funds available for a system of stipendiary scholarships, such as Mr. Erskine had designed for the whole net-work of primary and secondary schools; nor did the circumstances of the Presidency at this time appear to justify so large a scheme. The eagerness with which boys were now pressing on to the English schools as soon as, or even before, they had been properly taught the rudiments in their village-school, seemed to call for cautious regulation rather than for additional stimulus. A year later, *viz.*, in 1866, an entrance-test in the studies of the vernacular school-course was imposed on every Government middle school throughout the Presidency; and thus "the people's wide-spread desire for English was used as a lever to raise the Vernacular education of the country."

Primary education in Sind.

This measure was urgently required in Sind, where, though the English schools at Karáchi and Hyderabad were said to be flourishing, the vernacular schools were all more or less unsuccessful. The Commissioner, Mr. Mansfield, stated in 1864 that not more than 5 or 6 vernacular schools in the province justified their existence. Another pressing want in this province was a supply of Sindhi school-masters. The training schools at Hyderabad and Sukkur had failed to attract them; and the only masters who could be got for the vernacular schools were Maráthi-speaking men, who were imperfectly acquainted with their pupils' mother-tongue. The population of Sind at this time, excluding the Native State of Khairpur, was about 1,800,000,* of which nearly three-fourths were Musálmans and the remainder chiefly Hindus. The attitude of both these sections of the community towards the Departmental schools was one of almost complete indifference. The nobility, consisting of the descendants of Amirs, Jághírdárs and large landlords, invariably had their children taught at home by Akhúnds or private tutors. The trading and manufacturing classes, which consisted mainly of well-to-do Hindus, held aloof from the Government school, because it taught Sindhi through the Arabic character, and not through any of the Hindu alphabets employed by them in business. The agricultural and labouring classes, who formed the majority of the population and were mostly composed of Muhammadans, desired nothing more than ability to read the Korán and a little Persian. Their indigenous schools, however, were attended by about 7,000 children, of which only a few were Hindus, who were attracted to them by a desire to learn Persian as a means of qualifying for Government clerkships. The indigenous schools maintained by the Hindu trading classes, on the other hand, contained only 803 pupils.† They were strictly denominational schools, and taught Hindu-Sindhi, written in the Khudáwádi‡ and other varieties of the Sindhi character.

The gradual improvement of these two classes of indigenous schools by a system of grants-in-aid was proposed by Mr. Ellis in 1855; but the practical difficulties, arising from the ethnical and physical features of Sind, which stood in the way of such a scheme were found to be even greater than those encountered in other parts of the Presidency. On the other hand, the establishment of vernacular schools by the agency of the Department was of nearly equal difficulty, owing to the Hindus and Muhammadans being unwilling to accept a common alphabet. A Despatch from the Court of Directors in 1852, sanctioning an annual outlay of Rs. 10,000 on education in Sind, had virtually decided in favour of the Arabic-Sindhi character to the exclusion of the Hindu alphabets; and from that time the former became the established character for official use; and a series of school-books was prepared in it. But the Commissioner, Sir Bartle Frere, was so strongly of opinion that the exclusive adoption of either

* The Census of 1856 showed the population to be 1,772,367. Taking the area of Sind (exclusive of Khairpur) to be 48,014 square miles, the average distribution of the population will be seen to have been as low as 37 to the square mile.

† It is stated however to have been a common practice for a Hindu child to learn reading and writing at the shop of a friendly neighbour, who had leisure to give instruction. *See* Mr. Ellis's Report on Education in Sind in 1855.

‡ In Northern Sind the Hindu-Sindhi character went under the name of *Shikárpuri*. *Khudáwádi* was applied to the characters employed in Central and Lower Sind.

one of the rival characters would condemn to generations of ignorance the people whose alphabet was ignored, that in 1856 he had a standard alphabet prepared from the Hindu symbols, with a view to its introduction into the State-schools on an equal footing with the Arabic character. At this stage, however, the question was allowed to drop.* An attempt was made, indeed, in 1862 to introduce the Hindu-Sindhi character into one or two schools: but it failed,—chiefly on account of the non-existence of any books prepared in that character—and for a few years no further action was taken in the matter.

Primary education in the rest of the Presidency.

The extension of primary education on the partially self-supporting system was continued by the Educational Department until the middle of 1858,† when the Government of India pointed out that this practice was inconsistent with the terms of the Despatch of 1854, which directed that the education of the masses should be promoted by subsidising indigenous schools. The Bombay Government replied that the partially self-supporting system was substantially the same as the grant-in-aid system, inasmuch as the Department paid only a moiety of the school-master's salary, while the people paid not only the other half and school-fees, but the whole of the expenditure on account of the school-building, furniture and contingencies. The difference between a school so maintained and an aided indigenous school was that in the former the Government assumed regular control over the appointment and action of the master, and thus gave the people a substantial guarantee that all the money contributed would be well spent. The Supreme Government (in letter No. 1004, dated 29th June 1858) acquiesced in this view,‡ but desired that no new schools of this class should be opened without their sanction.

The extension of primary education being thus virtually stopped,—for the grant-in-aid rules sanctioned by the Government of India were wholly unsuited to the indigenous village-school,—§ the work of the Educational Department was limited to consolidating and improving its existing schools.

But now a new difficulty presented itself. The general wish was that the Government should undertake the collection of the popular contributions

* The Hindu or Banya-Sindhi character was a corrupt form of Devanágari and "exhibited at least two varieties and countless local peculiarities." The form of Devanágari, to which it was most nearly allied, was the Gujaráthi character; and that character was also in actual use in Thar and Párkar, in Karáchi and some other parts of the province. It was, therefore, proposed by General John Jacob to introduce the Gujaráthi letters into the Hindu schools, his opinion being that a purely Hindu alphabet would be more likely to make its way in the country than one constructed more or less by foreigners and made up of a mixture of forms borrowed from the debased local alphabets. This proposal was not however carried out. (See page 39.)

† In that year there existed 288 primary schools—

25	of these schools had been opened by the Board of Education in 1854.	
32	were opened in	1855.
195	Ditto	1856.
27	Ditto	1857.
9	Ditto	1858.
288		

‡ The same view was taken (in the Despatch of 1854) of the Elphinstone Institution which was controlled by a semi-official Board and was receiving a Government subsidy of Rs. 20,000 per annum: "The Elphinstone Institution is an instance of a college conducted in the main upon the principle of grant-in-aid which we desire to see more extensively carried out;" para. 94.

§ The Educational Inspectors were also unanimously against adapting the rules to the indigenous schools; first, because they were not a wide-spread and deep-rooted institution as in other parts of India; secondly, because the masters had not as a class any great hold on the affection of the people; and, thirdly, because the instruction which they gave was, with the single exception of mental arithmetic, barely worthy of the name and of no use in after-life "If aided", wrote Mr. T. C. Hope, "these schools might show on paper results to all appearance satisfactory in the extreme; and these results might far exceed any that had been previously attained, but still the system would fail in the vital point—that education under it would be neither sound nor thorough, and at anything short of soundness and thoroughness it is not worth while to aim. There cannot be sound and thorough education in a school without method and discipline; and those cannot be ensured here without regular control over the appointment and actions of the master." Another fundamental objection was that under a grant-in-aid system the action of Government would be, not to establish schools where they were most wanted, but to assist them when already established, and where, *primâ facie*, there was less need of State-assistance than in those districts where there were no schools at all. (*See* Mr. Howell's Note for 1866-67, p. 18.) More than 90 per cent. of the villages in the Presidency were at this time without any indigenous schools.

towards the cost of the partially self-supporting schools; but this could not be done under the existing rules, which required everything to be left to the people. On the other hand, the Inspectors strongly condemned the voluntary system both in theory and practice. Mr. Hope wrote—

"The partially self-supporting system contains within itself the elements of self-destruction. It presupposes in the mass of the people a high appreciation of the value of education, and earnestness sufficient to make them drown all party-feuds and prejudices in order to obtain it,—a power of combination and self-respect,—such that they will systematically tax themselves, and an honesty which will bear them immaculate through the greatest temptations to partiality, embezzlement, and fraud. But not only does it assume that the people have what they have not, but also that they have not what they have, or, at least, it overlooks some of their especial characteristics. They have, as a race, an instinctive habit of submitting to the decrees of the powers that be, which nothing but the most extraordinary circumstances can break, and even then only for a time. They have been trained to suspect Government by centuries of oppression, and this suspicion is aroused when they see it attempting to do by persuasion what it has the power to command. They have a natural desire to take advantage of the weak; and such conduct in Government they take as a proof of weakness and resist accordingly. The partially self-supporting system was thus framed to suit a state of society which does not exist, and, at the same time, abandon the advantages and run counter to the characteristic prejudices of that which does."

Mr. Hope also condemned the system as being unworkable. "Few villages," he maintained, "possess a central authority, composed of either village officers or heads of castes, which has sufficient influence to assess and collect a subscription from the whole population; and where there is such an authority its members are loath to incur the responsibility of signing the security-bonds for regular payment, which we of course require before opening a school." As a practical illustration of this difficulty he quotes the following case of a village-collection in Gujaráth:—

"Uttarsundar is a very rich village in the Kaira Collectorate, with a population of 3,477, and yields a revenue to Government of about Rs. 9,000 per annum. It has a partially self-supporting school, for which it is bound to pay Rs. 150 per annum. The master is popular and the number of pupils varies according to season and circumstances from 40 to 80 children. The people were well satisfied with the school and willing to pay the trifle required for its support. But there was a dispute between the leading men as to the mode in which it should be levied, to terminate which I was lately obliged to go to the place myself. I found three parties, one of which desired a house-tax, another an enhancement of the land assessment, and a third the levy of a duty on certain articles. After two days of fruitless talk, I, on the third, succeeded in obtaining a adoption of the first and most practicable measure. This was only introductory to the great trouble of getting hold of every house-holder in the village to obtain from him his trifling contribution at the rate of four annas per annum. Some were busy in ploughing or sowing, others were going to neighbouring villages to sell their produce. Each had to be called away from his business and to lose half a day at least. In the middle a fresh difficulty occurred. The Bráhmans in a body declined to pay on the ground of their social supremacy. The other castes loudly objected, and the question remained open for three days. At length it was settled by a very oriental expedient,—that of drawing lots. Four different sums of money were written on pieces of paper, and it was agreed that the caste should pay the sum written on the one drawn. As luck would have it the caste got off for one-fifth of what it ought to have paid, the balance falling, of course, on the rest of the village. At length the whole of the money thus due was collected; but at what cost? The Mámlatdár, the District Deputy Collector, and I, had done little else for six days, and the villagers were thoroughly worried with being troubled and taken away from their work, the cultivators for half a day at least—the headmen for the whole time; so that I believe the whole population would at that time have readily signed a petition for the abolition of the school."

Mr. Hope was of opinion that the fairest plan, both for the people and for the Department, would be to collect the popular contribution along with the land revenue; and he proposed a Legislative Act which might be gradually declared in force, from year to year in such towns and villages as appeared to the Educational authorities most ready for and in want of schools." He further proposed to throw the whole cost of the schools upon the people. Mr. Howard, on the other hand, thought a compulsory education-rate premature, and as an alternative he submitted to the Government a draft Bill to enable the inhabitants of any town or village to tax themselves for educational purposes.* The Government of Bombay, however, did not think that legislation was then expedient and declined to entertain Mr. Howard's proposal.

* *See* Mr. Howard's Annual Report for 1857-58, p. 56 *k*.

Grant-in-aid system.

But the grant-in-aid rules, sanctioned by the Government of India, not only proved in practice to be unsuitable to the indigenous village schools; they were also found to be too stringent for most of the higher Native schools; and Mr. Howard accordingly proposed to revise them. His draft was not however approved by the Supreme Government, who were of opinion that it was then* quite premature to enter upon a consideration of this question with a view to the adoption of a permanent and universal system; and they recommended that the existing rules should continue in force. Meanwhile the financial pressure of the time had stopped all new educational expenditure before any grants could be given under the rules. In addition to this the Director of Public Instruction strongly questioned whether by the terms of the Despatch of 1854 missionary schools were eligible for grants of public money; and personally he was of Lord Ellenborough's† opinion that at that time "no measure could be adopted more calculated to tranquillise the minds of the natives, and to restore to us their confidence than that of withholding the aid of Government from schools with which missionaries were connected."

The whole question of State-aid was shortly afterwards discussed in the Despatch of the 7th of April 1859. As regards missionary schools, it was pointed out that they had received grants of public money by the natural operation of a system which took no cognizance of any religious instruction imparted to the pupils. As regards elementary schools for the masses, it was freely recognised that the grant-in-aid system, as first devised, was unsuitable; and it was suggested that elementary education, in rural districts, at least, might be provided for by a land-tax, administered directly by the officers of Government. On all these points, however, the opinion of the Government of India was requested and full statistical information was called for as to the number and character of all the schools affected by the questions raised. In answer to the first of these questions Mr. Howard submitted that the jealousy of the natives of this Presidency would be excited, if grants were made on a large scale to missionary schools, unless such schools were placed among a wild or low-caste population. On the second point he strongly deprecated any serious effort to work through the indigenous schools of the country.‡ As long as they were not interfered with, they performed a very useful office§ as ancillary schools. But he added that the natives in this Presidency much preferred the prestige, purity, and efficiency of Governmental to private management. As regards the question of taxation, he was still in favour of an Education Act on the voluntary principle; but if the principle of compulsion were accepted as the necessary basis for elementary education, he decidedly preferred Mr. Hope's scheme to any of the plans tried in the other Presidencies. He also proposed that Government should immediately levy with each rupee of land-revenue the one-anna cess which had been reserved under the Revenue Survey Rules for education and local improvements; and that the Municipal Act should be amended so as to authorise the application of Municipal funds to secular education in Municipal towns.

No direct action was taken with regard to the aid of missionary institutions by the State until the year 1863, when, on Mr. Howard's recommendation

* May 1858.

† *See* letter from Lord Ellenborough, President of the Board of Control, to the Chairman and Deputy Chairman of the Court of Directors, dated April 28th, 1858.

‡ Many of these schools had been inspected, but without producing favourable results. The standard of admission to Government normal classes had been lowered in favour of indigenous masters, but those who presented themselves for examination failed to pass; and finally a number of indigenous masters were made assistant masters in Government schools; but the hope that they would improve themselves was not realised.

§ The returns show that they had been steadily increasing in number *pari passu* with those of the Educational Department. The figures are:—

	1855.	1860.
Departmental (including Native States)—		
Schools	256	646
Scholars	20,011	34,371

	1855.	1863*a*.
Indigenous, (including Sind)—		
Schools	2,386	2,921
Scholars	70,314	77,137

(*a*) In the returns of 1860 the indigenous schools are inseparably mixed up with missionary and private schools.

the Bombay Government introduced a provisional code offering grants-in-aid on the system of payment-by-results. The principle on which the grants were offered "was cordially accepted by the missionary bodies, who considered that it would imply less intrusion into the details of their school-management on the part of inspecting officers than any other system of conditions for grants-in-aid that could be devised. But they objected to the particular terms offered by Mr. Howard, which they considered so illiberal as to make it not worth while to offer their schools for inspection under the rules in question." In 1864 Sir A. Grant, who was officiating for Mr. Howard, held a conference with the leading missionaries and managers of private schools and afterwards drew up a revised Code of rules, which finally met with general acceptance. But during the whole period of Mr. Howard's administration, from 1856 to 1865, no missionary institution received State-aid. In the last 6 years of his tenure of the Directorship Rs. 2,25,603 were paid as grants-in-aid to private schools, but these were chiefly charitable institutions, some of which, as, for example, the schools of the Bombay Education Society, enjoyed fixed yearly grants under agreements accepted by Government before the constitution of the Educational Department.

In the year 1862 the municipalities were legally empowered* to assign funds for the support of schools situated within municipal limits. The Gujaráth municipalities responded; but the large municipality of Poona for some years gave nothing†; and the municipal contributions for the whole Presidency were at first insignificant. In 1864 the total amount received from this source was rather less than Rs. 20,000.

Mr. Howard's more important proposal—the levy of the reserved one-anna land-cess ‡—was sanctioned by the Bombay Government in 1863 and carried into general effect the next year. In most of the nine zillas, in which the cess was collected, one-third was assigned to education and the remainder to local public works§. The cess-funds were declared by the Government to be restricted in the first instance to the support of primary education, and táluka and zilla committees of the Revenue and Educational officers were constituted to ascertain local requirements and to budget for them annually and in the same detail as the centralisation-scheme of 1861 required in the case of Imperial expenditure. In Sind, however, the Commissioner continued to be the sole controlling officer. The first assignment to education from the local cess amounted to Rs. 2,60,000, excluding Rs. 18,773, assigned by a similar levy in Sind. The money, however, was not all made over until the year 1864 was considerably advanced, and the Department was consequently unable to reap the full benefit of this substantial addition to its resources until 1865-66. The partial advantage gained was nevertheless considerable, for before the close of 1864-65 there was an immediate increase of 148 primary schools and 12,529 scholars.

General progress.

We have shown that at the time of the constitution of the Department of Public Instruction in this Presidency in 1855 there were nearly 24,000 pupils in the departmental schools and colleges, and about 82,000 in the private and indigenous institutions. At the close of Mr. Howard's administration in 1865 the number of pupils in the former group of institutions had risen to 66,343. The vernacular schools controlled by the Department had risen from 263 with 19,666 pupils, to 925 with 61,729 pupils. The secondary, collegiate and normal institutions at the beginning of 1855-56 were 14 in number, and were attended by 2,860 pupils. At the end of 1864-65 they had increased to 33‖ with an attendance of 4,614. In these ten years, therefore, the number of pupils in vernacular schools had more than trebled, while in the higher grades of schools it had not quite doubled. The quantity and quality of instruction given in the village-schools managed by the

* By Act II of 1862.

† The Municipality of Bombay was not affected by Act II. of 1862.

‡ In a few instances the cess was an anna and a half.

§ A nearly similar cess had been levied in Sind as early as 1861, in anticipation of the legal sanction which was eventually accorded it by Act VIII. of 1865. One anna was levied on every rupee of land and sáyar revenue, jághír and alienated lands included. Half of this was assigned for local purposes, in which education had a share of about $\frac{1}{12}$th of the anna.

‖ One of these was a Law and Arts College, established at Ahmedabad in 1861-62 and wholly maintained by private liberality. The institution was not affiliated to the University.

Department was slightly above that of the indigenous schools. But the superior vernacular schools established in towns were organised after the model that had been proposed by Mr. Erskine. They aimed at teaching considerably more than the rudiments of learning, and in upwards of 100 of them the two highest classes learnt English.

The Imperial grant in 1855-56 to the Government schools and colleges of general learning was Rs. 1,95,000. During the mutiny it was reduced to Rs. 1,43,000. In 1864-65 it was increased to three lákhs, but the whole Imperial expenditure incurred directly on these institutions in the 10 years now under review was less than Rs. 21,C0,000, or rather more than two lákhs per annum. Their total annual cost, however, is shown by Mr. Howard to have been not far short of twice the average Imperial grant, the balance of expenditure being made up by tuition-fees and popular contributions as follows:—

	Rs.
Fees * in schools and colleges of general education . . .	5,86,846
Popular subscriptions and donations	4,23,579
Endowments	5,47,526
Municipal assignments	43,290
Local Cess in 1864-65	2,15,359
TOTAL Rs. .	18,16,600

The Imperial grant to the University for the same period was Rs. 98,608 as against Rs. 5,42,400 in private donations and endowments, and Rs. 7,600 in fees.

It will be seen, then, that while the direct Imperial grant to Government institutions of general learning was almost stationary, the expansion of primary and higher education was mainly effected by local resources. The progress made, therefore, would seem to have been due not to any artificial stimulus, but, as observed by Government in a Resolution, No. 613 of 1866, "to a natural and growing desire for education on the part of the people, which the operations of the department had been instrumental in developing."

The total Imperial expenditure on education from 1855 to 1865 was as follows:—

	Imperial expenditure.	Percentage (†) on total expenditure from all sources, excluding pensions and Native State contributions and private expenditure in private schools.
	Rs.	
Direction and Inspection	12,88,771	18·26
University	98,608	1·40
Government schools and colleges { General . .	20,63,466	29·24
Government schools and colleges { Special . .	5,70,015	8·08
Aided institutions . . . { General . .	1,38,088	1·96
Aided institutions . . . { Special‡ . .	2,23,293	3·16
Translation Department and encouragement of literature	42,505	·60
Book Department §	2,66,098	3·77
TOTAL .	46,90,844	66·47

* The fee-receipts rose from Rs. 32,850 in 1855-56 to Rs. 1,06,623 in 1864-65.

† Total Expenditure—

46,90,844	Imperial.
18,16,600	Local contributions.
5,50,000	University donations and fees.
70,57,444	

‡ Includes a building-grant of Rs. 1,00,000 to the Victoria and Albert Museum, and grants to the Botanical Gardens, Agri-Horticultural Society, Central Museum, Royal Asiatic Society, Schools of Art, and other similar institutions.

§ Nearly the whole of this item was a loan, since repaid from the sale-proceeds of books.

The precise number of pupils in private and indigenous schools in 1865 cannot be ascertained; but it was estimated by the Education Department to be not less than 83,000; and Mr. Howard reported in 1862 that the teaching in a large number of them was "based on an imitation of the Government system," and that their demand for the Government school-books was 'enormous.' It does not appear, however, whether the estimate of this large consumption of school-books over and above those taken by Government schools was based on the general impressions of the inspecting officers, or on returns collected by the salesmen of the Book-Depôts. The sales at the Government Central Depôt and its 600 branches during the seven years prior to 1866 amounted to Rs. 4,00,000.

Training schools were now in operation at Poona, Ahmedabad, Rájkot, Belgaum, Hyderabad (Sind), and Sukkur, and they contained in all 180 stipendiary students. The two first were reported to be efficient, that at Ahmedabad being superintended by a native scholar, who had visited England and acquainted himself with the various systems pursued in the Training Colleges at Cheltenham and other places. In the year 1864 the Poona and Ahmedabad Training Institutions supplied the Vernacular Schools of Gujarath and Mahárashtra with 100 teachers. The other training schools contributed but little towards the improvement of vernacular schools; and in the Kánarese districts,* as well as in Sind, very few of the school-masters employed spoke the same mother-tongue as their pupils; or, if they did, they were incompetent to teach it.† In both Divisions the masters were mostly Maráthi-speaking men, and in the former they had at the best no more than a colloquial knowledge of Kánarese. Mr. Howard had proposed, indeed, to establish a training school or class in every zilla, in order that the candidate-masters might not be taken far from their homes,—a circumstance which, as he remarked, is always found in this country to increase the costliness of all kinds of labour. But the scheme was not carried into effect; and hence the pupil-teacher system, as devised by Mr. Erskine, was as yet but imperfectly developed.

It is a matter for remark that little was done by the Department during this period to promote female education. Most of the girls' schools that existed were maintained by private benevolence, on the part more especially of the Pársis or of the Baniás of Gujarath. In 1857 the Bombay Government sanctioned small annual rewards to vernacular school-masters, who should form girls' classes in their schools; and this had some effect, as in 1864-65 the Government schools contained 639 girls. But the Government more than once expressed the view that its servants should not act directly in pushing forward the establishment of girls' schools, but should rather wait upon Native opinion. The reason for this policy was thus stated by Sir A. Grant—

"Looking at the question broadly, I am afraid it must be asserted that the public education (properly so called) of women is incompatible with the system of infant marriages and with many existing prejudices of the people on the most delicate subjects. I think that the education and civilisation of the male portion of the people in India, together with the example of the European community, will inevitably bring in the education of the women in India; but that this result will be very gradual and will be subsequent to many important social changes. In the meanwhile, I am humbly of opinion that private and missionary exertion may do much to help on the cause, but that Government is precluded from taking any prominent steps to accelerate the movement."

* Education in North Kánara and most other parts of the Kánarese districts was at this time nearly as backward as in Sind.

† Since the time of the Peshwas Maráthi had been the language employed in official and commercial correspondence.

SECTION II.—*Progress of Education from 1865-1871.*

The six years from 1865 to 1871, on which the history of education now enters, form in some respects a distinct epoch. They were years in which the principle of an educational cess was finally adopted, first as a voluntary experiment and finally by the authority of the legislature. The year 1865 in which this cess was first contributed and applied to primary education also coincided with a change of direction, as Sir Alexander Grant was appointed Director in the place of Mr. Howard. From that year primary education was no longer dependent on a capricious assignment of public funds which might increase or decrease according to the accidental favour or disfavour with which the claims of the masses were regarded by higher authority, or the oscillations of Indian Administration. The education of the masses was now finally secured by a permanent income which could not be diverted from that branch of instruction without breach of faith and subsequently without illegality. It was possible, therefore, not merely to extend largely primary education, but to lay down a far-sighted and definite course of policy which would not be imperilled by unforeseen financial contingencies or fluctuations of revenue. As primary education was thus insured, it became necessary to consider the special claims of secondary instruction; and the grant-in-aid system was carefully considered in particular reference to a branch of education, whose income was not equally independent of the State and the constant demands which all departments must make upon the public funds. The position of Sir A. Grant as Vice-Chancellor of the University also secured to the colleges and the High Schools, an ample recognition of their claims, and a sympathy between the aims of the Education Department and the University, which was of great value. In 1868 Sir A. Grant retired and was succeeded by Mr. Peile, C.S. The whole period of their combined administration was one not merely of greatly increased resources but of rapid and well organised development.

* Income and Expenditure.

The total expenditure from Imperial Funds rose from Rs. 8,57,272 in 1864-65 to Rs. 10,36,412 in 1870-71, or nearly 21 per cent. The total expenditure from Local Funds increased by no less than 131 per cent., being Rs. 4,94,282 in the former, and Rs. 11,42,743 in the latter of these two years. The average annual expenditure from both sources was 17¾ lákhs, Imperial Funds contributing nearly 9½ lákhs and Local Funds 8¼ lákhs per annum. This expenditure was distributed as follows:—

Direction	2·52 per cent.
Inspection	8·14 „
Instruction and Miscellaneous charges . . .	89·34 „

On schools and colleges of general education the total Imperial and local expenditure in 1864-65 was Rs. 6,27,277. By 1870-71 it had risen to Rs. 14,43,185, or 130 per cent. But nearly 6¼ lákhs of this increase were derived from local resources,* the increase in the Imperial grant being rather less than 2 lákhs. It will be seen from the comparative table given below that in 1870-71 the total expenditure on these institutions was distributed in the proportion of 9 per cent. to the Arts Colleges, 21 per cent. to the high and middle schools, and 70 per cent. to primary vernacular schools. The proportion of the cost contributed from local resources in 1870-71 also deserves attention. In the

* The fee-receipts alone amounted to Rs. 2,05,842 this year, and for the whole period now under review they were more than 11¼ lákhs.

colleges it was rather less than ⅓rd; in the secondary schools nearly ½; while in the primary schools it rose to nearly ¾ths of the total expenditure.

Class of Institution.	Expenditure from Imperial Funds on Government Schools and Colleges.	Expenditure on Government Schools and Colleges from Local Funds (including local cess, popular and municipal assignments, fees, interest on endowments).	Total expenditure of Government Schools and Colleges.	Increase in Expenditure.	Percentage on total expenditure of all Schools and Colleges	Results of Expenditure.			
						No. of Government Schools and Colleges	No. of Scholars in Government Schools and Colleges	Increase in Number of Institutions.	Increase in Number of Scholars.
Government Arts Colleges in 1864-65	57,847	33,023	90,870	...	14·48	3	213	...	...
Government Arts Colleges in 1870-71	89,353	36,346	1,25,699	38 per cent.	8·70	3	250	...	17 per cent.
Government secondary schools in 1864-65	97,992	75,913	1,73,905	...	27·72	30	4,470	...	...
Government secondary schools in 1870-71	1,54,920	1,51,330	3,06,250	76 per cent.	21·22	58	7,570	93 per cent.	69 per cent.
Government primary schools in 1864-65	1,80,979	1,81,523	3,62,502	...	57·9	925	61,729	...	...
Government primary schools in 1870-71	2,88,140	7,23,096	10,11,236	178 per cent.	70·06	2,663	1,52,278	209 per cent.	146 per cent.
Total in 1864 65	3,36,818	2,90,459	6,27,277	...	...	958	66,412	...	...
Total in 1870-71	5,32,413	9,10,772	14,43,185	130 per cent.	...	2,724	1,60,098	184 per cent.	141 per cent.
Total Increase	1,95,595	6,20,313	8,15,908	...	...	...	...	...	...

Results.

The comparison made in the above table between expenditure and results is of course incomplete. It will be supplemented further on by statistics showing the quality of the instruction imparted in each class of institutions. There are also some results of expenditure which can never be fully expressed in mere statistics. The solid improvements effected at this time by Sir A. Grant and by Mr. Peile in the organisation of the schools and colleges raised the whole status of public instruction throughout the Presidency; and the effects of the changes introduced are traceable not only in the examiner's pass-lists, but in the fact that both the University and the Educational Inspectors found it practicable year by year to increase the stringency of their examinations. But even with these reservations it is worth noting that an increase of 76 per cent. in the expenditure resulted in the number of secondary schools being almost doubled and in the attendance being raised by nearly 70 per cent. The increase of expenditure on primary education led to still greater results: the number of schools was nearly trebled, and the attendance rose from 61,000 to 152,000, or 146 per cent.

The one-anna cess.

The funds requisite for this rapid expansion were chiefly derived from the one-anna land-cess, which, as we have shown, was at first levied by the Bombay Government without the sanction of a legislative enactment. But both in Sind and in the rest of the Presidency this tax was not only paid "without a murmur or remonstrance of any kind," but "in several places, where it had not been levied, the people came forward and volunteered to pay it." The willingness with which the agricultural classes paid this large additional tax of 6¼ per cent. of the land revenue was explained at the time by the lightness of the land assessment, and by the prosperity which accrued to the peasant proprietary through the inflation of the Bombay cotton-trade during the Civil War in America. But wealth and contentment do not necessarily beget a desire for knowledge; and in any case they do not wholly account for the practical wisdom of the people at this time of commercial excitement in immediately making use of the opportunity offered them in the new cess-schools. In the first year that the cess came into operation there was an increase of 148 schools and 12,529 scholars. The next two years showed a total increase of nearly 500 schools and more than 30,000 scholars; and this expansion, unchecked by a subsequent depression of the cotton-trade, continued until the famine of 1876. It seems fair, therefore, to assume that, prior to the introduction of the cess, the Government schools established in every táluka in the Presidency had greatly fostered, if they did not create, the desire for education, which the people now found themselves able to satisfy. With the sanction of

the Secretary of State the one-anna cess continued to be levied as a voluntary rate until 1869, in which year a Bill was passed (Act III of 1869), making the rate compulsory. Local Committees* were provided under the Act to administer the funds thus raised, as well as any other funds that might be placed at their disposal; and by the rules which the Act empowered the Local Government to make, not less than ⅓rd of the cess was assigned for the purposes of primary education within the zilla in which the cess was collected. The Local Fund Law special to Sind (Act VIII of 1865) made no express provision for Local Committees. But in 1869 they were duly constituted by the Commissioner, and he at the same time allotted about ⅛th of the cess to education. The proportion has since been raised to the same share of the cess which is assigned in the rest of the Presidency.

* The *District Committee* consisted of—
1. The Collector as President
2. „ 1st Assistant Collector.
3. „ 2nd „ „
4. „ Huzúr Deputy Collector.
5. „ District „ „
6. „ Educational Inspector.
7. „ Executive Engineer.
8. An Inámdár (or holder of an alienated village) to be elected by holders of alienated villages in the district.
9. Six proprietors or holders of land in the district.

The *Táluka Committee* consisted of—
1. The Assistant Collector or Deputy Collector in charge of the táluka.
2. The Mámlatdár.
3. The Deputy Educational Inspector.
4. An Inámdár.
5. Three proprietors or holders of land in the táluka.

Non-agricultural community.

The agricultural classes, who paid the whole of the cess levied under these Acts, were at this time not more than one-half of the population of the Presidency. On the other hand, while nearly one-half of the entire number of the pupils attending the cess-schools were the children of non-cess-payers, three-fourths of the cost of these schools were defrayed from cess-income. The chief cause of the anomaly was that the town-schools (which were attended mostly by the children of the non-cultivating classes) were debited as a charge against the cess-funds.* In the interests of the cess-paying part of the community the imposition of a school-rate on the non-agricultural inhabitants of towns and villages seemed clearly demanded; and the more so since the municipalities had for the most part† shown no disposition to assist in removing the inequality. Accordingly, in 1870 Mr. Peile expressed the opinion that the time had arrived for levying an equable school-rate on the people at large, especially as popular sentiment was now strongly in favour of education; and he advised that Act III of 1869 should be supplemented by a law providing for the raising of a rate in the form of a house-tax on the non-agricultural inhabitants of towns and villages. No legislative action was, however, taken on this proposal; and the question still presses for solution.

Grant-in-aid system.

It has already been stated that the first practical step taken in this Presidency to introduce the grant-in-aid system of payment for results was the conference which Sir A. Grant convened with the managers of the principal private schools at Bombay and Poona in the year 1864. The rules and standards of instruction which were then drawn up, were designed for the benefit of any private primary or secondary school for Europeans or Natives of India, which was under a board of management, or which was not maintained solely for private profit. Sir A. Grant did not contemplate the entire exclusion from the benefit of the rules of indigenous and other similar schools maintained at places where they were greatly needed to supply some special want. Nor, again, did he rigidly apply them to a school that had only recently been founded and was not yet fully organised. Every application for aid was treated on its merits; and any deserving school which could show that it was being established or carried on under difficulties, received half its expenses from the State the first year, on the understanding that it would thereafter be dealt with according to the ordinary rules. In reviewing the first year's operation of Sir A. Grant's Code, the Government of India strongly affirmed the principle‡ that no private school should be considered eligible for a

* The Imperial grant to primary education was credited to these funds as a lump-assignment to each Collectorate. No distinction was made between the urban and rural districts of the zilla.

† The Bombay Municipality was an exception. It paid Rs. 10,000 in 1866 as a grant to the primary schools in the island, and only withdrew it the next year on discovering that the civic revenues could not legally be so applied.

‡ Government of India letter to the Bombay Government, No. 5071, dated October 2nd, 1867.

grant-in-aid unless its private resources were inadequate to meet its absolutely necessary outlay. And this principle was further emphasised by the Secretary of State,* who expressed the opinion that "even with the provisions insisted on by Sir A. Grant, the assistance of Government should be extended to schools, maintained for the profit of the master, only under very exceptional circumstances."

The maximum grants offered under the several standards of instruction prescribed by the Code ranged from one rupee to four rupees a head, and in Anglo-Vernacular Schools from six rupees to thirty rupees a head, with a special grant of Rs. 100 for each pupil who passed the Matriculation Examination. A capitation grant of Rs. 2 in Anglo-Vernacular, and of eight annas in Vernacular schools was also given on the average attendance of the pupils during the year.

In the first year of the operation of the Code 31 private institutions came forward and were accorded grants amounting in all to Rs. 24,000. Almost all of the schools were situated at Bombay or Poona and were maintained by the Missionary Societies. These two circumstances might seem to indicate that the grants-in-aid were not wholly equal to the expectations which had been entertained of the system.

To some extent the want of enlightenment in Native communities throughout large tracts of the Presidency was one cause of its limited operation. The local missionary bodies moreover were numerically weak as compared with those in other parts of India; and, speaking broadly, their chief efforts were directed to the development of Anglo-Vernacular schools. It will be seen, therefore, that the grant-in-aid system was necessarily confined for the most part to secondary education, and that even in that sphere it left the country largely dependent on the direct action of Government. In 1870 Mr. Peile observed that in a few of the large towns educated natives were beginning to open private Anglo-Vernacular schools, and that he had admitted them to the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules because the schools brought in an extremely moderate return to their managers; but he added: "The conclusion I have formed from my own observation is that grants to meet purely voluntary educational efforts are suitable for schools of secondary education only. I have not the slightest faith in an adequate system of primary instruction, expected *ex hypothesi* to pre-exist and to come out to ask for a grant-in-aid from the State. I do not say that there is no place for a grant-in-aid system in vernacular education, but I would rely upon it only as far as this. If, when Government has laid by law the basis of an adequate system of primary schools, has settled how the funds shall be raised, what shall be the scope of the teaching, and how the schools shall be managed, inspected and officered, it finds available any competent managing bodies, such as the municipalities of towns, a subsidy of public money may very properly be granted to such managers on the system of payment-by-results. But grants-in-aid will neither create nor improve the ordinary village-schools, devoid of any managing agency and scattered over a vast area. These Government must establish first and manage afterwards, immediately and entirely." This view, towards which the experience gained by Government ever since 1855 had steadily tended, was re-affirmed by the Government of India at the time of introducing the decentralisation of the financial system of 1871: "The education of the masses has the greatest claim on the State funds. The Government of India desires to maintain this view, but the grant-in-aid rules have in practice been found so unsuitable to primary schools that except in special cases such grants-in-aid are seldom sanctioned from the General Revenues."

The grant-in-aid rules and standards drawn up by Sir A. Grant remained in force until the end of March 1870, by which time the number of aided schools had risen to 68 and the awards to Rs. 38,000. The growing popularity of the system was thus fairly established; and there was probably at this time in the Presidency not a single secondary school deserving encouragement from the State, which was excluded from the aided list. The experience gained by the actual working of the system for four years suggested, however, certain additions and

* Despatch No. 9, dated March 31st, 1868.

alterations in the rules and standards. Grants to private colleges, *viz.*, Rs. 200 and Rs. 350 respectively for each of their students who passed the F.A. or B.A. Examinations had been sanctioned in 1867.* Rules were now added to the Code for the award of liberal grants-in-aid of assistant teachers' salaries and of private expenditure on school-buildings; and the standard of instruction were very carefully remodelled, so that the education given in a primary, middle, and high school might in each case be a complete course in itself, and yet be so co-ordered with the course of the next higher institution, as not to delay a pupil, who was desirous of passing on to a more advanced stage of studies. These standards were applied at the same time to the Government schools, though with somewhat severer conditions than were exacted from the aided schools. But, as they did not come into full force in either class of institutions until the year 1871-72, we reserve futher details regarding these important changes for the next chapter. It may however be noticed that in 1870-71 the grants for results rose to 44,000 rupees; and that one private institution alone received a building grant of more than Rs. 61,000.

Results under standards of instruction.

It will be convenient here to show what were the results attained by the definite standards of instruction and inspection, which were first laid down by Sir A. Grant in 1866, and which a year later were brought into full operation in all grades of Government and aided schools. The introduction of these standards was justly regarded by the department as a measure of very great importance, not only as solving a long-pending difficulty and providing a system of grants-in-aid which was acceptable to the managers of private schools, but as giving an organic completeness and precision to the whole system of public instruction. We need not dilate on the advantage to the pupil of a skilfully-drawn curriculum of studies ranging from the beginning to the end of his school life. But it may be pointed out that the school-statistics of the Bombay Presidency now became thoroughly clear and intelligible. The Director of Public Instruction's annual reports showed precisely what the primary, middle, and high schools were, both in intention and in reality. The schools of one district could henceforth be accurately compared with those of another; Government schools with private schools: and the strength or weakness of every class of institutions was each year fully exposed to view. As regards the effect of a fixed standard of inspection on the aided schools, Sir A. Grant wrote: "It stimulates the managers of private schools to fresh exertion in the improvement of their pupils; it tends to the constant raising and keeping up of the schools; it prevents the attention of teachers being concentrated on the best pupils to the neglect of others; it relieves the Inspecting Officers of all responsibility in stating "impressions;" and it gives a reason for every increase or diminution of Governmental aid.

The results attained in primary institutions under the new standards may be briefly shown by comparing the total returns for 1867-68 with those for the last year of the period now under review. The standards themselves, as well as the number of pupils passed under each of them, it is unnecessary to give in the present sketch. But they will be found on pages 30—34 and pages 40—49 respectively of the Annual Reports on Public Instruction for the two years in question. In primary schools, Government and private, the total results were as follows:—

	Total No. examined in	Total No. passed in			
		Arithmetic.	Reading.	Writing.	History and Geography.
	Standards I—IV				
1867-68	72,537	34,727	32,740	31,873	5,644
	Standards I—V				
1870-71	76,512	45,580	41,754	44,255	19,954
Increase per cent. in 1870-71 .	5·48	31·25	27 53	38·85	253·54

* The private colleges were first paid grants (amounting to Rs. 950) in 1870-71.

These figures exhibit a satisfactory advance. But the large increase of 253 per cent. shown in the last column was due to the fact that in the first year History and Geography had only lately been prescribed for Government schools and were not demanded at all from aided schools; whereas in 1870-71 these two subjects were extensively taught in both classes of institutions.

Results of secondary education.

The total results of the Inspectors' examinations of secondary schools are given in the next table. The large increase in 1870-71 in the number of pupils who passed in History and Geography was mainly due to the causes just mentioned. But it will be seen that in the latter year there was a falling-off in the number of examinees. This result, however, was not viewed with regret, as it had been brought about by the enforcement of a stricter entrance-test in the middle schools and by other radical changes essential to their well-being. In a Despatch to the Government of Bombay, dated September 11th, 1869, the Duke of Argyll made the following reference to these improvements:—

"It was entirely consistent with the solidity and reality of Sir A. Grant's administration that he discerned the evil of calling that an Anglo-Vernacular school, in which only five or six boys learnt a little imperfect English. By the simple rules which Sir A. Grant promulgated on this subject and by the demand of a small fee for English instruction, he reduced 86 schools from the class of Government middle-class schools to vernacular or primary schools. It required, no doubt, some nerve to strike off nearly 1,700 from the number (on paper) of English-learning pupils; but I have a just confidence that Sir A. Grant acted in the interest of real English education by doing so."

Results in Secondary Institutions of Examination under fixed Standards of Instruction.

	Class of Schools.	Total No. examined under Anglo-Vernacular Standards I to V.	Total No passed in			
			Mathematics.	English.	Vernacular.	History and Geography.
1867-68	Government	8,154	4,888	3,512	3,776	1,684
	Aided	1,792	1,138	973	1,044	205
	Inspected	501	285	261	270	65
	Total	10,447	6,311	4,746	5,090	2,954
1870-71	Government	7,823	4,987	3,767	4,366	4,408
	Aided	1,750	1,020	875	898	936
	Inspected	475	317	231	266	240
	Total	10,048	6,324	4,873	5,530	5,584
	Increase per cent.	...	·20	2·69	8·64	89·03

The extension of middle-class education was carried on in the same spirit by Mr. Peile. He discouraged bad teaching by requiring all teachers of English in Government schools to hold at least a certificate of competency from an Educational Inspector, but he also secured additional funds both from Government and from the local bodies for the establishment of really good schools.

High schools.

These and other similar measures that might be enumerated, indirectly added great strength to the high schools. But Sir A. Grant aimed at more than this. "The high schools," he wrote, "in order to play their part, require to be characterised by a literary and classical spirit, such as we find in the great public schools in England. They should send up boys to the colleges, not only just able to pass the University Entrance Examination, but also imbued with a fair amount of English literature and thoroughly grounded in the rudiments of Sanskrit or Latin."

In pursuance of this policy the status of the high schools was considerably improved both during and after his short administration by the measures taken to strengthen their *personnel*; to widen the range of their curriculum; and generally to infuse into the management a more vigorous and scholarly tone than had hitherto existed. It should also be noted that at the beginning of 1871 a high school was opened on a liberal scale at Rájkot for the education of the young Chiefs of the Káthiawár Peninsula. The result of this interesting measure belongs to the history of the next decade; but its foundation was a conspicuous part of the general plan, steadily pursued throughout the present period, for the encouragement of secondary education.

Collegiate Education.

The Government Arts Colleges continued to maintain a high state of efficiency, that at Bombay being now under the administration of Mr. K. M. Chatfield, a distinguished graduate of the Oxford University. In reviewing the position of the Elphinstone and Poona Colleges in 1867 Sir A. Grant recorded that, judging from actual results in the students educated in these institutions, there was no branch of the department that he contemplated with greater pleasure. But he pointed out that these good results were attained under difficulties which were a serious bar to continued progress. The professors in both colleges were too few in numbers; most of the freshmen who came up from the high schools had no knowledge of a classical language and required grounding in the rudiments of subjects, which they should have begun at school; and finally, in point of numbers, the colleges were much depressed by the indifference of the richer classes of the people to a University education. The first of these difficulties was not removed until the year 1871; the second began to disappear in 1869, when the re-organisation of the high schools came into full force and the colleges were able to refuse admission to men who were unacquainted with the elements of a classical language; the third was obviously one which must work out its own remedy.

University Examinations.

The quality of the instruction given in the colleges and high schools, as tested by the University examinations, is indicated in the two following tables. The results of the higher examinations in arts, compared with those in the period prior to 1865, exhibit a considerable advance in numbers. In the four years from 1861 to 1864 the average number of students who each year passed the F.A., B.A., and M.A. Examinations was respectively 14, 7, and 1. The corresponding averages for the years 1865—1870 were 31, 15, and 4. The annual average of passes at the Matriculation Examination in the six years from 1865-70 was 150 as against 54 in the preceding 6 years:—

Results of the Matriculation Examination for 1865—1870.

Years.	No. of Institutions sending up Candidates.				No. of Candidates Sent up.					No. of Candidates Passed.					Religion or National Classification of Passed Candidates.					
															Natives of India.					
	Government.	Native States.	Private.	Total.	From Government Schools.	From Schools in Native States.	From Private Schools.	Private Students.	Total.	From Government Schools.	From Schools in Native States.	From Private Schools.	Private Students.	Total.	Christians.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Pársis.	Others.	Europeans.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1865-66	15	...	7	22	167	...	62	60	289	78	...	25	8	111	...	90	2	18	1	...
1866-67	18	1	10	29	256	1	113	86	456	72	...	19	2	93	2	69	4	18	...	...
1867-68	15	4	12	31	265	15	132	120	532	111	5	35	12	163	7	118	3	31	4	...
1868-69	13	5	13	31	278	26	173	149	626	160	14	61	15	250	15	182	1	47	5	...
1869-70	11	5	16	32	364	41	249	168	822	87	8	40	7	142	15	95	1	29	2	...
1870-71	21	6	23	50	360	51	270	212	893	83	9	46	4	142	13	104	2	21	2	...
Total	...	...	...	...	1,690	134	999	795	3,618	591	36	226	48	901	52	658	13	164	14	...

Results of the Higher University Examinations from 1865—1870.

		1865-66.		1866-67.		1867-68.		1868-69.		1869-70.		1870-71.	
		Number presented.	Number passed.	Number presented.	Number passed.	Number presented.	Number passed.	Number presented.	Number passed.	Number presented.	Number passed.	Number presented.	Number passed.
Arts	First Arts.	47	26	55	21	66	21	78	40	100	34	132	44
	B.A.	24	10	31	15	37	24	27	7	46	20	60	13
	M.A.	9	6	6	4	12	6	10	4	6	2	5	2
Law	LL.B.	2	2	2	2	6	3	6	3	16	6	13	13
Medicine	First L.M.	5	4	...	...	5	...	7	4	9	5	12	4
	L.M.	1	1	4	2	4	3	1	1	...	...	4	3
	M.D.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Engineering	First C.E.	...	...	3	2	5	...	8	7	5	4	14	8
	L.C.E.	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	1	7	3	7	2
	M.C.E.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	TOTAL	88	49	101	46	135	57	138	67	189	74	247	89

Training Colleges.

In 1868 Mr. Peile noted that the supply of masters had not kept pace with the rapid increase in cess-schools, and that many untrained or half-trained teachers had been appointed. Complaints were also made of the quality of the candidates who appeared at the Training Colleges. Most of them were either too young or too old; and from want of definite scales of pay in the primary schools or of direct rewards for superior merit or zeal, the village school-masterships failed to attract the right men. Mr. Peile, therefore, re-organised the whole system of supply. A candidate on leaving school at 15 was attached as a pupil-teacher to the master of a good vernacular school. After two years' apprenticeship he was sent up to a Training College, where he passed a preliminary year, and after that, if found fit, received either one or two years of systematic training. On obtaining a 1st or 2nd class certificate of training for one or for two years, as the case might be, he was entitled on appointment as a teacher to a fixed minimum pay according to his class; and, if head or sole master, to a capitation and proficiency-allowance which varied with the numbers and quality of his school. Mr. Peile thus graded the whole staff of vernacular teachers "in seven ascending steps,* on the lowest of which a steady industrious youth might place himself with the certainty of a guaranteed competence and of the opportunity of adding to his means by his own exertions." In addition to this, all teachers whose salaries exceeded Rs. 10 per mensem were now made eligible for pension. This system (which is still in force throughout the Presidency) produced a marked improvement in the personnel of the primary schools. On the Training Colleges an immediate effect was observable; and in 1870-71 the number of students under training rose to 456, which was 153 per cent. more than the Training Colleges contained in 1865.

* Pupil-teachers.
Unpassed assistants.
Passed assistants.
1st year certificated masters of the 2nd class.
1st year certificated masters of the 1st class.
2nd year certificated masters of the 2nd class.
2nd year certificated masters of the 1st class.

Muhammadan Education.

In the year 1869 the educational wants of the Muhammadan population engaged considerable attention; and Mr. Peile's report for that year contains the following instructive review of this subject:—"I do not find reason to concur in the common opinion that the Muhammadans repudiate education and avoid Government schools. They are mostly very poor people and naturally do not aspire to the higher culture. Relics of the Arab or Turkish or Afghan dynasties of the middle age of India, they wear the suppressed air, and practise the reserve of a people which has fallen from power. But the returns of various races of scholars will show that if, as is commonly held, the Muhammadans nowhere exceed 10 per cent. of the

population of a district, the proportion of them under instruction is not below that of other races; and it is worthy of note that they are found in greater numbers in the Government than in private schools. A distinction must be made between the Muhammadan cultivator, who generally speaks the vernacular, and the town Muhammadan, who preserves the Urdu and therefore requires special education. The percentage of Muhammadans among the payers of the agricultural school-rate is estimated at not more than 2 per cent. in the Deccan, and 4 or 5 in the Konkan. The proportion of Muhamamdans in the towns of more than 4,000 inhabitants is stated at a quarter of a million, or $\frac{1}{7}$th of the whole population of those towns." These remarks pointed to the conclusion that Muhammadan education through Hindustani was bound up with the subject of primary instruction in towns, for which, as already shown, no separate provision had as yet been made. But Mr. Peile secured to the Muhammadans their fair share in the vernacular grant; and he offered them special encouragement to attend the Vernacular Training Colleges.

Sind.

The progress of education in Sind deserves a brief notice. In point of numbers there was a decided advance; for while in 1865 there were 40 Government primary schools, attended by 1,608 scholars, there were at the end of 1870-71 no less than 149 of these schools with 6,916 scholars. Part of the increase was due to the introduction of a Hindu-Sindhi alphabet, which had been prepared by a Committee appointed for the purpose in the year 1868. No pains were spared to make the series of school-books printed in this character inviting and popular: and for the first few years the experiment gave some promise of permanent success. Ultimately, however,—to anticipate what in strictness belongs to the history of the next decade,—the new alphabet lost favour with the people. In 1875 Mr. Fulton, the Educational Inspector, reported a general falling-off in the study of Hindu-Sindhi; and in 1877 the Inspector observed that the character was still unpopular in many village-schools. The Department has not, however, abandoned the use of this alphabet; as it is believed to be a concession to Hindu sentiment, which may one day attain its purpose: but it may be doubted, whether the literary requirements of the trading classes in Sind will for many years to come be extensive enough to make them regard a uniform alphabet as a necessity.

Female Education.

The progress made in female education at this period was chiefly due to external and private stimulus; to the philanthropic visit to this Presidency of Miss Carpenter, whose sympathetic exertions were very gratefully received by the native community; to the efforts of influential European ladies at Thána and Dhulia; and to the liberality of the Bái Sáhebs of the Southern Marátha States of Sángli and Jath, as well as to the Chief of Kurundvád, to the Honourable Mr. Byrámji Jijibhái and the Honourable Mr. Mangaldás Nathubhái. Female Normal Schools were established at Ahmedabad, Bombay, and Poona. In Sind the Educational Inspector was able in 1868 to open 22 schools for girls. They were attended by 659 pupils, 75 per cent. of whom were the children of Muhammadans; and 11 of the schools were conducted by female teachers of respectable parentage, who could read, write, and sew. The total number of girls' schools in the Presidency in 1869 was 209. They were attended by 9,291 pupils, a number, which, as Mr. Peile remarked, exceeded the total number of boys who were under instruction when the Board of Education began its work in 1840.

SECTION III.—*Progress of Education from 1871 to 1881.*

The history of education in Bombay which has been traced from 1855, (when the State Department of Public Instruction succeeded to the management of schools and the development of a policy bequeathed by the Board of Education) until 1871, serves as a natural introduction and transition to the history of the last decade. From 1855 to 1861 the progress of education was checked by want of funds arising from the outbreak of the rebellion, but the whole policy of the State towards every class of school and towards aided enterprise was carefully reviewed and discussed. The personal interest shown by Sir Erskine Perry in Higher Education and his strong advocacy of the theory of "filtration downwards" were a valuable guarantee that his views and arguments would receive no prejudiced consideration. But the policy of the Bombay Government, which gradually shaped itself in the ten years that followed 1861, and became more distinct after 1871, was unmistakeably in favour of primary education and the direct claims of the masses upon the State. Secondary and higher education were certainly not neglected, but the object of Government was rather to improve the efficiency and distribution of existing secondary schools and colleges than to increase their total cost or number. For any large increase in schools of secondary and higher education they looked to greater sacrifices and larger contributions from the people themselves, and to private enterprise aided by the State rather than to direct Government agency. But they threw the main weight of their efforts into the cause of primary education. The claims of the peasantry, who contribute the cess-funds, which are the mainstay of elementary education in Bombay, to receive a cheap and sound education, could not with justice be ignored; and as far as funds would permit, the country was covered with village-schools managed by the State, but really supplied by the people themselves. Undoubtedly the policy of undertaking the direct control of primary education was partly suggested by higher authority. In paragraph 50 of his Despatch No. 4, dated April 7th, 1859, the Secretary of State wrote: "It appears to Her Majesty's Government that the means of elementary education should be provided by the direct instrumentality of the officers of Government." But other considerations impelled Government on a course which was specially suited to the condition of Western India. The cess or Government schools, as they are generally termed, have from the first enjoyed and maintained a remarkable popularity. The wealth which the American war poured into rural Bombay stimulated at the outset a demand for national education, and the peasantry were not content with their indigenous and inefficient schools. Their contributions to the cess made them also dissatisfied with anything but a visible and direct return for their money. Education in a cess-school was much cheaper, as well as more efficient, than in a private school. The entire cost of educating a young peasant in a cess-school is now about 6 annas a month, whilst the monthly fee* payable in an indigenous school is frequently 8 annas and not rarely one rupee. Had the Government been inclined to hold back, the national demand for primary education and the special claims of the cess-payers would have urged them forward. The history then of the decade upon which we now enter is one mainly of the extension of primary education, and for the rest of improved efficiency in higher and collegiate education. The system was subjected to a prolonged strain, during the severe famine in the Deccan, and the necessity for economy which the decentralisation-scheme of 1871 imposed. But notwithstanding these difficulties, the statistics, which will presently be given, will show a progress along the lines traced in the Despatch of 1854, which has not been surpassed in any other period of the history of education in Bombay or, as far as we are aware, elsewhere in India.

Development of primary Education.

The decentralisation-order of December 14th, 1870, compelled the Department to look elsewhere than to the imperial exchequer for increasing its returns; it also compelled the Government of Bombay to define a provincial policy of education. The complete division

Decentralisation-order.

* The fee in the cess-school varies from ½ to 2 annas.

of primary from secondary education, towards which the history of education in Bombay had steadily tended, was the first step towards concentrating special attention on the former and associating its progress with the growth of self-government. By 1873 the division was completed not merely in standards of instruction and in organisation and administrative control, but also in finance. Up to 1871 the invariable prelude to any extension of primary education was an additional demand on the Government of India for funds. In the report for 1871-72 the Director wrote: "We have come to a stand-still, and if additional funds are not provided, must close schools. In the Central Division 286 new schools are at once required; Sind asks for 50. Mr. Draper asks for a fixed increase of 10 per cent; Mr. Fleet speaks of 120 demanded in the south, and Dr. Bühler thinks that 1,200 more will ultimately be required for Gujarath." But the assignment of a fixed grant for education made it evident that the department must henceforth look less to assistance from outside than to a careful redistribution of its finances, re-organisation, and administrative reforms. The Government of India had trusted to Provincial control as likely to lead to greater economy, and the Local Government adopted the same remedy. The direction which such deprovincialisation should take was suggested by the Government of India Resolution No. 60, Home Department, dated February 11th, 1871, which re-affirmed the repeated declaration of the Secretary of State that "it is a primary duty to assign funds for the education of those who are least able to help themselves, and the education of the masses has therefore the greatest claim on State funds." The Resolution of the Bombay Government, Education Department, No. 1447, dated December 27th, 1872, gave effect to this policy. The policy was indeed not new, as has already been shown, and the Legislature by Act VIII, 1865, applicable to Sind, and by Act III, 1869, applicable to the rest of the Presidency, had already constituted the necessary machinery. But the Resolution of December 1872 went a step further. It ordered the complete separation of charges for superintendence and for English schools from lower school charges with a view to leave the cess income entirely to be devoted to primary schools. The cess-income forms the chief financial provision by which Local Fund, District and Táluka Committees are enabled to exercise the administrative powers conferred on them by the Legislature. The responsibilities of these committees in the matter of primary education were therefore emphasised by the new budget-arrangement; and the connection between local boards and the village schools was drawn closer than ever. In his letter No. 2930, dated September 3rd, 1881, paragraph 7, which has been laid before the Commission, Mr. Chatfield has described the important changes which have taken place in the management of cess-schools, that is, primary schools. In his report for 1880-81, paragraph 17, he wrote as follows: "From March 1873 Government has been relieved of all expenditure on account of the leave allowances and pensions of masters in Local Fund schools; and as far as financial considerations are concerned, these schools are now less dependent on Government than 'Board' Schools in England are."

Without anticipating the details which will presently be given, it may be mentioned here that the prophecies of closing schools which have just been recited proved to be erroneous. On the contrary, despite a long famine, the attendance in the cess primary schools at the end of the decade had increased by 65 per cent., although the expenditure in the same period had only increased by 19 per cent. The funds available for primary education over which the Local Fund Committees exercised control consisted of the cess funds collected under Bombay Act III, 1869, already described, and a provincial assignment for primary education. Neither of these provisions has proved very elastic, and the improved results are therefore clearly due to economical and better administration. In 1870-71 the cess-contributions were Rs. 7,20,326, and in 1880-81 they were Rs. 7,46,698. This fund, though it constitutes the main support of elementary education, was never intended to be the only support. In the first place, the cess is paid almost entirely by the rural community, and the wants of the urban community for primary instruction could never be supplied by the very small proportion of cess funds contributed by land holders resident in the

Inelasticity of Funds compensated for by local control.

towns. One important field for the extension of primary education would therefore be left untouched, if there were no income for expenditure on elementary schools in towns except the cess fund. A second argument for assigning provincial funds to aid the cess funds exists in the obligation of the State to assist primary education not merely in the towns, but still more in the villages where the cess-payers contribute too often an educational rate from which their neighbours, and not they themselves, derive any direct benefit. The Government of India's Resolution dated February 11th, 1871, distinctly contemplated the regular assignment of a provincial grant in aid of schools mainly supported from local cesses or municipal rates. They added,* "A rule should however be laid down that the State contribution should not exceed one-half of the aggregate contribution from all other sources, or one-third of the total expenditure in the school concerned." These precautions against too liberal assistance will be read with some surprise, when we note the fact that in 1870-71 the supplementary grant from public revenues to primary schools was Rs. 2,57,114, and in 1880-81 it had only increased to Rs. 2,94,921. Of this sum it is estimated that more than 2† lákhs are spent in towns, where the cess contributions are inadequate to meet the wants of the people, and where municipalities fail to provide funds for primary schools. The balance of the grant, notwithstanding the urgent claims put forward year after year by Local Fund Committees, is therefore inappreciably small, and were it not for the cess contributed by the peasantry for their own education, primary education in rural Bombay would be at a very low ebb. It is therefore a matter for favourable comment that, although the decentralisation-scheme closed to primary education a source of income derived from Imperial grants, which till then had steadily increased, yet the records of the ten years which followed should show such a marked improvement in the attendance at, and the efficiency of, primary schools. As stated by Mr. Chatfield in his report for 1880-81, part of the success is due to the prosperity of the country and the increasing demand for education, but part is due to the increasing interest taken by Local Committees and the Revenue‡ officers in education. "The Local Fund Committees have worked hard to extend our system, and great credit must be given to them."

Improved organisation of primary Education.

Whilst the decentralisation-scheme threw the burden of providing elementary schools entirely on local resources, and whilst the connexion between primary education and Local Committees was being drawn closer and closer, the Department of Public Instruction was not content with merely increasing primary schools, but aimed also at their improvement. The peasantry of Bombay have never felt or expressed any preference for their indigenous school, or any fear of the "unsettling influence" of the modern system of education. The school course in cess-schools has never been condemned by popular feeling as "ambitious or unpractical." Still the cess-schools have created a demand which they cannot satisfy, and this demand has in turn created a supply of private schools. Thus it happens that indigenous schools have also increased in the decade under review in despite of, and yet in consequence of, the Government or cess-schools. The bulk of them have received no direct assistance; they have even been unable to attract or keep their boys where a cess-school has been opened, and yet as the

* The point of view from which the Government of India regarded cess schools was clearly correct, but very different from the popular view which is now often entertained. The cess-schools in 1871 were looked on as schools supported mainly by popular contributions legalised by Statute, and entitled to a grant-in-aid from the public revenues. They are now frequently spoken of as Government schools (although they receive no appreciable assignment from provincial revenues) in opposition to private, aided, or indigenous schools.

† The assignment is really paid as a lump-sum into the treasury to the credit of the Local Fund Committee. Strictly speaking, it is incorrect to regard the assignment as separate from the cess income or separately devoted to any particular class of schools. But the Government of Bombay have, for convenience sake, lately regarded the assignment as specially assigned to primary education in towns, and therefore this view is here maintained.

‡ The Bombay revenue system makes it necessary for the Collector and his Assistants to visit every large town and almost every village in their districts annually. These officers are also members of the Local Committees and, as such, directly interested in the expenditure of the educational cess. Government have therefore imposed on their Revenue officers the duty of visiting primary schools and reporting the results of their inspection, not merely in the visitor's book, which every primary school-master is bound to keep, but also in a special report, which is forwarded to the Educational Inspector.

limited amount of cess-funds has failed to supply the popular demand, they have discharged an important function and profited by the demand for education which the cess-schools have stimulated. Such a condition of affairs was favourable for increasing the standard of instruction in the cess-schools. It was seized by the Department. We have already shown in Chapter II, Section II, that the department had recognised the principle that the function of a primary school was not merely to prepare a boy for an English course, but also to fit a class of the community for taking an intelligent position in society. The great mass of village boys would never proceed to the town school. The distant and artificial goal of a Matriculation standard was beyond the horizon of the life of a village peasant. The pedantic definition of primary instruction as a course of instruction ending in a fraction of an education "which leads up to the University" was discarded, and the growing demand for elementary education was utilised by expanding Standard V into Standards V and VI, and making Standard VI the passport to Government employment in the lower grades of the public service. Better teachers were supplied, and the establishment which every school must require was turned to the best account. Before the end of the period now under review the average attendance in cess-schools had reached 60, the cost per head was reduced to 8 annas per mensem, and there were many schools in the Presidency in which 300 boys were accommodated under one roof. These measures were the secret of the large increase of attendance without a proportionate increase of expenditure, to which attention has been called. The following statement, which covers the whole ground of primary education controlled by the department and therefore excludes the attendance in indigenous schools, will show at a glance the progress which was made between 1871 and 1881:—

Departmental Expenditure (from Imperial or Provincial grants, Cess, Municipal grants, Fees, Subscriptions, &c.,) on Primary Education in British Districts (Grants to Aided Schools and the cost of Normal Schools are excluded, also the cost of Direction and Inspection).

Government Expenditure (i.e., Imperial or Provincial Funds, Cess, Fees, and Endowments of Government Schools, Subscriptions for ditto, &c.)		Boys at School.						Girls at School.		Total of Pupils in Primary Schools.	
		Government (Cess) Schools.		Aided Schools.		Inspected Schools, i.e., Schools in Native States.					
1871.	1881.	1871.	1881.	1871.	1881.	1871.	1881.	1871.*	1881.*	1871.	1881.
Rs.	Rs.										
9,24,265	11,08,825	124,160	204,993	1,505	7,895	25,460	62,754	8,503	17,612†	159,628	293,254

* Detail of this is as under:—

	1870-71.	1880-81.
Girls in Government Schools	5,493	10,151
Do. Aided Schools	1,440	3,325
Do. Inspected Schools	1,570	4,136
	8,503	17,612

† 2,745 girls are attending Boys' Schools and have been shown under Boys.

The columns of expenditure do not include the expenditure incurred by Native Governments or by private school proprietors. But they show what expenditure under the direct control of Government produced direct results in Government schools, and indirect results over the whole field of primary education. The advance made in Native States under the supervision of Inspectors appointed by the department is very gratifying, and even aided elementary schools, which include the best indigenous schools, have done more than struggle for existence under Government patronage. But the Bombay system of administering the cess income on education for the benefit of the contributors must be judged by its direct results. What have the cess-schools, under the Local Fund Boards and the professional supervision of the Department of Education, succeeded in doing in the last 10 years? In 1871 there were 129,653 boys and girls in these primary schools, and in 1881 after a struggle with famine—unprecedented in extent, duration, and severity—there were 215,144. In other words, an increase of attendance of 65 per cent. in Government schools alone has been purchased by an increase of expenditure of 19 per cent. since 1871. As the

Explanation of Tabular Statement.

cess-schools are mainly supported by the educational cess paid by land-holders it is interesting to record that about 62 * per cent. of the attendance in these schools was supplied by the children of the cess-payers. In comparing the figures of elementary instruction in a province, where the primary schools are managed by Government and are not indigenous schools, it must be remembered that the figures are checked at every step by Sub-Inspectors, Inspectors, and the Director, as well as by the Assistant Collector and the members of the Local Boards who pay visits of inspection to the schools and record their remarks in a book kept for the purpose. There is no advantage gained by fraudulent returns, and little chance of their escaping detection. The figures are therefore absolutely to be relied upon. The improvement in attendance is most marked, as might be expected, amongst the urban population, where it amounts to about 75 per cent., but it is not confined to the towns. In the villages, where the great mass of "husbandmen" cess-payers reside, there is an increase of more than 60 per cent. in the scholars compared with 1871. The Northern Division or province of Gujarath takes the lead, where the percentage of school attendance to the whole population is $3\frac{1}{2}$ in Broach, nearly 3 in Surat, and 2 in Kaira. The Southern Division stands next with a percentage of 2·40 in Kaládgi, and 2 in Dhárwár. But Sind, as might be expected, is a dead-weight on the Presidency, not $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the population attending school in the Jacobabad and Thar districts, whilst in Karáchi and Shikarpur the attendance is not more than $\frac{4}{5}$th per cent. These results would have been more satisfactory but for the famine. In 1876-77 there was a heavy decrease in the attendance at primary schools throughout the Central Division, which the advance in the Northern Division could not counteract. In the previous year there had been an increase throughout the Presidency of 11,438. The first year of the famine not only checked further increase, but caused a net decrease of 1,415 pupils. The two following years of distress left their mark on primary education by a decrease of 453 and 6,079 respectively; but, as the traces of famine disappeared, the normal progress was resumed. The general result is, that at the end of the decade the education of the masses throughout the Presidency and the Native States, whose education is supervised by the Department, shows 293,254 pupils in primary schools or an increase over 1871 of 85 per cent.

These figures omit all mention of the attendance in those indigenous schools, which want of funds has left outside the patronage of the Department. In a later Chapter these schools will be noticed, but in the period with which we are now concerned, the attendance in them had not been accurately ascertained. In 1875-76, on the eve of the famine, they were estimated as affording education to 78,982 pupils, and in 1881-82, when 73 of the indigenous schools were receiving aid, the unaided indigenous schools were attended by 78,755 in the whole Presidency. But there is always some risk in accepting statistics of indigenous schoools, even where the schools receive aid from the State. It is true that in Bombay the Department of Public Instruction does not depend on the District Magistrate and an uneducated constabulary for obtaining returns. The revenue system entails upon the Assistant Collector and his highly trained and numerous native subordinates the duty of personally collecting and verifying every sort of statistical information. Even the smallest village has its hereditary accountant trained to collect and report statistics, and the machinery of verification and supervision is more complete than in other parts of India, where the administrative charges are larger and the functions of Collector subordinated to those of the Magistrate. But even here a fundamental objection exists to the hasty adoption of statistics of indigenous schools. In considering the progress of education in the period under review it is not sufficient to show a larger attendance in 1881 than in 1871, and from it to assume that the indi-

Indigenous Schools.

* On March 31st, 1882, there were 131,405 children of husbandmen almost entirely Maráthas in Government schools only in the Bombay Presidency, yet the special correspondent of *The Times* telegraphing on September 17th, 1882, made the following announcement, inaccurate as a fact, and misreported as a quotation:— "On Monday the municipality held a great meeting of citizens and presented an address to the Commission, intimating their willingness now to become responsible for girls' as well as boys' schools. The President of the Commission in reply dwelt on the fact that the great mass of the Maratha husbandmen who had formed the Maratha armies were still practically unrepresented in the Government schools. It is stated that a movement will now be made by the native associations to endeavour to remedy this state of things."

genous schools are more numerous or better attended than they were. Prior to 1882 a really satisfactory census of indigenous schools has never been completed. These schools easily escape attention, and the increase of one year over another may often be due to the discovery of old schools previously unknown, rather than to the increase of new schools or the improvement of attendance in those whose existence was recorded in a previous year. Moreover, although the machinery for collecting accurate information may exist in British districts, it does not exist in the native states and the jaghirs which are interlaced with British territory. It is therefore difficult to estimate precisely the full extent of primary education throughout the limits of the Bombay Presidency, and still more to calculate what progress has been made in any given period. Turning, however, to the statement which has been given and bearing in mind the reservations which these remarks imply, it would appear that in Government and aided schools in the British districts of the Bombay Presidency there were 226,364 children in primary schools in 1881. Assuming the attendance in aided indigenous schools in the same area to be 61,000, there would have been 287,364 children under elementary instruction. According to the census of 1872 the population in the Presidency, excluding native states, was 16,228,774; and if 15 per cent. represent the school-going age, there ought to be 2,434,316 boys and girls at school, of whom, as a matter of fact, not 12 per cent. were under instruction. These figures suggest small reason for satisfaction with the results attained. But, on the other hand, if the popular prejudice to female education, the exceptionally backward condition of Sind, and the dead-weight of a large aboriginal population are considered, it will be found that in some divisions of the Presidency the elementary education of male children has made remarkable progress; and in the city of Poona it has been stated that the whole population of school-going age, calculated as shown above, were attending primary schools at the close of 1881.

Night schools.

Attempts were made with some success in the period under review to reach adults as well as children, not only in agricultural districts, but also in the centres of manufacturing enterprise. In 1871-72 there were 38 such schools attended by 1,013 scholars, whilst in 1880-81 the number of schools had increased to 99 and of scholars to 2,882.

Trained masters.

In the quality, as well as the quantity, of elementary instruction an equally marked and steady progress was maintained between 1871 and 1881. The number of passed students increased year by year with steady regularity. In 1881, 69 per cent. of the boys in primary schools in Sind passed successfully, whilst the total number of boys in all divisions who passed was 75,004. Attention was also paid to the training of masters which became more necessary than ever, when the primary school course was enlarged. In 1872-73 rules for training masters were only just being issued for Sind, and were still under consideration for the southern division. The financial pressure which the famine caused and the need for economy with the decentralisation order entailed, affected somewhat the development of the scheme for providing trained masters for all schools. In 1870-71, the total expenditure on normal schools and training colleges was Rs. 87,510, and by 1881 it had been reduced to Rs. 70,520. Still, the statement which follows will exhibit the progress which has been made. The figures entered for 1870-71 require, however, some explanation. Until 1875-76 a master who had passed through the training college was considered "trained," even though he failed in the final examination. Again in the last period shown in the table the increase of untrained masters is due to the famine. For some years after the famine the revenue collections were in arrears, and the cess funds were starved, whilst however the recuperative power of the country was immediately attested by the demand for fresh schools. To meet this demand and yet comply with the necessities of the financial position cheap schools had to be opened, and students, who had not completed their course of training, were admitted to the posts of head masters. On the whole, however, the masters employed are considered thoroughly efficient. The experience of education in the primary schools of England confirms the experience of the Bombay Department, that the most efficient teachers are not always the "trained" masters; and the department has been careful to retain such masters as have proved themselves to be

capable. With these remarks the statement which follows may be left to speak for itself :—

Return showing the Number of Trained and Untrained Head Masters employed in Government Vernacular Schools in the Bombay Presidency.

	1870-71.				1875-76.				1880-81.			
	Trained masters.	Untrained masters.	Total.	Percentage of trained masters.	Trained masters.	Untrained masters.	Total.	Percentage of trained masters.	Trained masters.	Untrained masters.	Total.	Percentage of trained masters.
Educational Inspector C. D.	170	544	714	23·80	290	674	964	30·08	386	623	1,009	38·25
Ditto N. D.	373	181	554	67·32	415	426	841	49·34	421	439	860	48·95
Ditto N.-E. D.	143	272	415	34·45	258	278	536	48·09	253	456	709	35·68
Ditto S. D.	134	173	307	43·64	249	247	496	50·20	318	401	719	44·22
Ditto Sind	66	98	164	40·24	129	44	173	74·56	152	48	200	76·00
	886	1,268	2,154	41·59	1,341	1,669	3,010	44·55	1,530	1,967	3,497	43·75

Secondary Education.

The salient features in the history of secondary education during the decade under review stand somewhat in contrast with those which have been traced under primary education. Whilst primary schools, which rested on the stable foundation of the cess income, were being opened, and their cost to the cess-payer reduced, several secondary schools were being closed, the fees raised, and rigid economy practised. At the same time the policy of supplying every district with a high school was pursued, and successful endeavours made to render every middle class or high school thoroughly efficient. Attention was paid to practical instruction, and agricultural classes were added where possible to high schools. The policy already described of looking to private enterprise, and giving grants-in-aid to secondary institutions, was continued; and although the direct expenditure of Government on its own schools was far less in 1881 than in 1871, the assistance earned and awarded in the former year (although the awards were not immediately claimed) to private institutions was Rs. 98,605 against Rs. 78,225 in 1871, being an increase of 26 per cent. At the same time the fees were raised in Government institutions, so that the burden of cost to Government was materially lightened, and the cost of instruction to the student more proportioned to its value. The foot-note to the statement which is given below will illustrate these assertions. It will be observed that the contributions in 1871 from Imperial revenues and the cess were Rs. 2,00,054 to secondary education, or about 57 per cent. of the whole cost; but in 1881 these two contributions amounted only to Rs. 169,051, or about 49 per cent. of the whole cost. Fees had increased from Rs. 1,08,585 to Rs. 1,33,077, and thus the pupils paid no less than 38 per cent. of the entire cost of their education in the Government schools. Municipalities also began somewhat to recognise their public duty, and their contributions increased from Rs. 19,090 to Rs. 30,848 in 1881. The reduction of the Government grant to secondary and higher education, the enhancement of fees, and the diminution of anglo-vernacular schools thus enabled the department to maintain its policy of assisting private enterprise, although its finances were crippled by famine and by the closing of the imperial exchequer after the decentralisation scheme was introduced. The statement to which reference has been made is given below :—

Departmental Expenditure, Imperial and Provincial Grants, Cess, Fees, Municipal Grants, Subscriptions, &c., in British Districts on SECONDARY *Education (Colleges and Special and Technical Schools are excluded, also the cost of Direction and Inspection.)*

Expenditure.						Boys learning Middle Class or High School Standards.						Girls at School learning Middle Class or High School Standards.		Total of Pupils.	
On Government Schools.		Government Grant to Aided Schools.		Expenditure in Native States.		Government Schools.		Aided Schools.		Inspected or Native State Schools.		Aided Schools.			
1871.	1881.	1871.	1881.	1871.	1881.	1871.	1881.	1871.	1881.	1871.	1881.	1871.	1881.	1871.	1881.
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.										
3,47,956	3,47,428	a92,486*	a92,253*	49,573	1,27,834	9,077	9,780	5,288	7,015	1,882	3,233	687	1,334	16,934¶	21,362¶

* These were the grants actually drawn, and not the awards. In 1870-71 the grants actually drawn included Rs. 14,261 on account of the year 1869-70. The sum of Rs. 92,253 for 1880-81 includes Rs. 8,329 on account of previous year, and excludes Rs. 14,681 paid in 1881-82.

Detail of Expenditure on Government Schools:—

	1871. Rs.	1881. Rs.
Imperial or Provincial Revenue	1,69,801	1,65,484
Local Rates or Cesses	30,253†	3,567†
Endowments	10,784	8,431
Fees	1,08,585§	1,33,077
Municipal Grants	19,090	30,848
Subscriptions	9,443	5,690
Other sources	...	331
	3,47,956	3,47,428

The expenditure from private funds on aided schools was reported at Rs. 2,74,843 in 1871 and Rs. 2,93,650 in 1881.

† In 1870-71 certain high and 1st grade schools were partly supported by the cess funds. From the year 1873-74 such charges were transferred to provincial funds.

‡ Rs. 3,356 of this sum were spent on scholarships for the sons of cess-payers; Rs. 211 on 2nd grade schools.

§ Includes Rs. 12,958 being fees of the Elphinstone high school before 1870-71, but received from the trustees in that year. This payment *pro tanto* reduced the Imperial expenditure.

¶ Including the pupils of European and Eurasian schools.

a Including grants to schools for Europeans and Eurasians.

Results.

A few remarks on the results which are exhibited above may here be offered. Some recent changes in the classification of pupils under primary and secondary instruction which took effect in 1880-81 have reduced the number of pupils in secondary schools and added them to the attendance in primary schools. But, even making allowance for this, the increase in pupils in high and middle-class schools is very moderate. The Government schools have not, however, aimed at increased attendance. The policy of Government has been to make secondary education as efficient and economical as possible, and therefore as costly to the students as the circumstances of the country would permit. The department, on the other hand, aims at a complete and efficient system of education in every district, which shall serve as a standard to aided schools; but it has no desire to extend its provision of schools beyond that bare requirement. It has endeavoured to keep in view the dual function of secondary education as a precursor to the University course and also as supplying a sound practical education to the town-boy, who will never pursue his studies further, or the aspirant for the public service who obtains a first-class certificate on passing the highest standard of the anglo-vernacular course. In view of this double function Mr. Peile made it obligatory on boys in the high schools to study their vernacular, as well as a classic. His object was to preserve the vernacular as a joint medium of education with English or Sanskrit, so that the mental progress of the scholar might be reflected in his increased power to make use of his own language. "The present vernaculars," he argued, "better or worse for the changes wrought by time, will be the languages of the people of India a hundred years hence, as they are now: for it is futile to imagine that they can be superseded by the language of 50,000 Englishmen who are excluded by native custom from intimacy with the Indian people, and by climate from making India their home. If a vernacular language is capable of improvement by being made the medium (interchangeably with the more perfect languages) of cultivated thought, we are bound in our duty to the people of India to encourage such a use of it. How otherwise, in the words of the Despatch of 1854, are the vernaculars of India to be gradually enriched by translations of European books, or the original compositions of men whose minds have been imbued with the spirit of European advancement, so that European knowledge may gradually be placed in this manner within the reach of all classes of the people?" Notwithstanding the soundness and breadth of such liberal views, their adoption at once placed Government schools at a

disadvantage in regard to aided schools. The boys in the former were spending time in work which did not immediately repay them at the matriculation examination. Efforts were therefore made to get the University to recognise the reform by making examination in the vernacular a part of their test. But, notwithstanding these efforts, it was not until December 1879 that the University even partially conceded the point, and substituted a translation from the vernacular as an alternative to the paraphrase of a passage selected from an English classic. Even this concession goes a very little way towards the object desired, and a much greater recognition of the vernacular is required before Mr. Peile's object can be attained.

The results of the expenditure incurred by Government in secondary education during the past ten years must therefore be sought in the personnel of the public service, in the practical professions, and not merely in the University examinations. But even tested by this last test, the improved efficiency of the schools will be found reflected in the following statistics. The average number of students who annually passed the examinations in arts in the period now under review contrasts with the results of the previous period as follows :—

Period.	Matriculation.	F.A.	B.A.	M.A.
Annual average, 1871—1881 . . .	320	63	30	3
Annual average, 1865—1870 . . .	150	14	7	1

The tables which follow will explain themselves, but it should be observed that in 1879 the Bombay University instituted the degree of the bachelor of science, thus furthering the attempts which had been made by the department to render secondary education not only literary but practical. The curriculum prescribed by the Senate is fully set forth in the University Calendar and need not be reprinted here. It will be seen, in the second of the two tables which follow, that in the year 1880 two candidates passed the First Examination in that course. In February 1881 the Government of Bombay endeavoured to connect the higher ranks of the Native Civil Service in the Revenue branch with the University. Matriculated candidates and graduates of the University were given a preferential claim to certain appointments. The notification published by Government on this subject will be found at page 136 of the Annual Report of Public Instruction for 1880-81. With these preliminary remarks we append two tabular statements, and invite a reference to pages 37-38 for further comparison of results now shown with the results of the previous decade—

I.

Results of the Matriculation Examinations from 1871 to 1881.

Years.	Number of Institutions sending up Candidates.				Number of Candidates Sent up.					Number of Candidates Passed.					Religious or National Classification of Passed Scholars.					
															Natives of India.					Europeans.
	Government.	Native States.	Private.	Total.	From Government Schools.	From Schools in Native States.	From Private Schools.	Private Students.	Total.	From Government Schools.	From Schools in Native States.	From Private schools.	Private Students.	Total.	Christians.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Parsis.	Others.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1871-72 . .	16	6	24	46	288	45	314	219	866	112	17	86	12	227	25	163	2	36	1	...
1872-73 . .	19	7	24	50	342	62	284	218	906	175	33	133	38	379	37	263	2	72	5	...
1873-74 . .	19	7	27	53	380	67	369	202	1,018	190	28	107	30	355	30	251	1	73	...	...
1874-75 . .	17	8	28	53	419	79	390	224	1,112	143	25	81	13	262	9	160	3	71	8	11
1875-76 . .	19	11	32	62	402	96	536	235	1,269	182	42	183	27	434	14	292	3	111	1	13
1876-77 . .	18	10	27	55	376	95	437	245	1,153	102	19	74	8	203	12	134	2	49	...	6
1877-78 . .	20	10	25	55	358	85	338	243	1,024	122	26	55	14	217	9	153	4	40	1	10
1878-79 . .	21	8	20	49	361	85	307	218	971	122	17	102	20	261	9	154	2	76	7	13
1879-80 . .	21	12	21	54	370	109	314	300	1,093	204	61	132	36	436	11	317	1	96	...	11
1880-81 . .	22	11	21	54	430	122	309	399	1,260	173	47	152	57	429	14	288	10	106	1	10

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II.

Results of the Higher University Examinations from 1871 to 1881.

		1871-72.		1872-73.		1873-74.		1874-75.		1875-76.		1876-77.		1877-78.		1878-79.		1879-80.		1880-81.	
		Number examined.	Number passed.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Number examined.	Number passed.	Number examined.	Number passed.
Arts	First Examination in Arts	126	32	91	24	140	48	196	74	182	69	164	29	145	61	133	57	144	63	150	71
	Previous Examination	.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6	2	255	108
	Bachelor of Arts	30	14	49	22	55	23	64	30	84	18	87	40	83	30	93	42	97	51	100	34
	First B.Sc. Examination	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2	2
	Second B.Sc. do.	...	...	...	...	...	...	..	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Master of Arts	3	1	6	5	8	3	8	2	6	4	4	2	6	3	7	3	6	4	7	4
Law	Bachelor of Laws	2	...	6	1	7	3	10	2	10	5	14	3	13	4	19	6	29	20	25	17
Medicine	First L.M.&S.	17	9	22	15	25	13	29	18	43	30	37	19	42	21	47	24	32	28	28	21
	L.M.&S.	7	2	9	4	11	8	13	4	12	9	14	10	15	11	16	16	29	16	28	24
	M.D.	...	...	...	...	1	...	1	...	1	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Engineering	First L.C.E.	17	12	20	15	23	15	23	13	24	21	21	19	29	17	28	18	31	28	36	26
	L.C.E.	7	2	9	4	11	8	13	4	12	9	14	10	15	11	16	16	19	11	23	17
	M.C.E.	...	...	..	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

The statement that Government curtailed their own expenditure on Government institutions, in order to meet the growing demands of aided institutions and fulfil their engagements to assist private enterprise, has been challenged by more than one witness who has given evidence before the Commission. It is desirable therefore that accurate information on this important subject should now be given. Two tables follow, of which the first is intended to show the increase or decrease of Government high and secondary schools throughout the period under review; and the second the actual grants-in-aid which have been given. In reference to the first table the policy laid down and steadily pursued by the Department in regard to (i) high schools and (ii) middle-class schools must be explained. The high school is not merely the feeder of the college; it is also the completion of secondary education. By attaching to high schools agricultural classes and laboratories, Government have endeavoured to render their education practical, and also to hold up an example to aided institutions. It has always been considered desirable that each district should possess its own high school. Considerations of the expense to parents of sending their children far away to prepare for the University or complete their education, especially in the case of cess-payers, as well as an appreciation of the doctrine of religious neutrality, have added weight to this policy. There are 22 districts in the Bombay Presidency, many of which lie beyond the reach of railway communication and for which private enterprise cannot be expected for many years to supply institutions teaching the high-school course. The statement which follows will show how the high schools have gradually increased from 10 to 19 in the last ten years. Seven of these high schools were formerly middle-class schools, namely the Sátára, Sholápur, Thána, Násik, Nadiád, Broach, and Dhárwár schools, which have been raised to the dignity of high schools. But in Kárwár, and Shikárpur, the schools are new creations. It has already been shown that the Government expenditure on secondary education has decreased since 1871, and therefore the extension of higher education has only been purchased by a corresponding reduction in middle class schools as shown in the table given below. In 1871 there were 42 first-grade middle-class schools, of which 19 remain as they were, and six new schools of this grade have been opened. The remaining 23 schools which existed in 1871 have been disposed of as follows :—seven have been raised into high schools and six more amalgamated with similar institutions. The other ten have been closed. But the first-class anglo-vernacular schools have not borne the whole shock of reduction in order to provide means for the high schools. The second-grade anglo-vernacular schools fell from 90 in 1871 to 43 in the famine year. They have since been increased to 80. It is part of the policy of the department to discourage these lower-grade anglo-vernacular schools unless the people come forward to bear the whole cost of their maintenance, and they are the first to feel the effect of reduction. It is a rule of the department that the teacher of English in a Government school should hold a certificate of competency. Successive Directors have described schools of the second-grade as "really vernacular schools with an English class" and "generally inferior to a first-grade vernacular school." But whenever the people come forward with the necessary fees and contributions which are required for opening an English class, the department cannot refuse their request. Thus, it happens that these schools have increased without entailing any extra cost on Government, and their increase or decrease affords an accurate index of the prosperity or otherwise of the rural community.

Policy in regard to secondary schools.

With these remarks we give below a statement which indicates the increase or decrease of Government schools imparting secondary education, which are entirely managed by the department in the 22 districts of the Presidency :—

Class of Schools.	1870-71	1871-72	1872-73	1873-74	1874-75	1875-76	1876-77	1877-78	1878-79	1879-80	1880-81.
*High Schools	10	15	15	15	16	16	16	16	16	16	19
Middle class, 1st Grade . . .	42	38	36	46	45	40	36	32	32	31	25
Ditto, 2nd Grade . . .	90	63	52	45	46	47	43	43	40	72	80
*Including lower Departments.											
Total .	142	116	103	106	107	103	95	91	88	119	124

Grants-in-aid.

It has already been explained why the system of grants-in-aid in Bombay is regarded as specially adapted to secondary instruction. It has just been shown that in the last decade Government have aimed at increasing the efficiency rather than the cost of secondary education. High schools have been gradually increased and greatly strengthened, but middle-class schools have been reduced. On the whole Government have contributed less than a moiety of the whole cost of middle-class and high schools, and have increased their fees. By these means Government have been enabled, not merely to continue, but to increase their grants to aided institutions. We give on the next page a table which will exhibit in detail the grants-in-aid paid to every class of institution in 1871, 1876 and 1881. Full notes are appended to the statement which demand attention. The special college building-grant given in 1871 and the grants by results, awarded to high schools in 1880-81, but not drawn in that year, would give the impression that Government had been less liberal, instead of more liberal in 1881, but the notes will show that the awards for results in 1880-81 were Rs. 80,802 against Rs. 46,663 in the first year of the decade. A falling-off after 1876 (in which year many grants earned in 1875 were paid) will be observed, and as it has been the subject of remark from many witnesses, the facts must be briefly stated. Prior to 1875, the fixed provincial assignment for grants-in-aid payable by results was more than sufficient to meet all the claims upon the Department. But in that year the aided schools had so advanced in efficiency that their earnings considerably exceeded the allotment. The excess claims were duly paid in the following year, but Government were compelled to announce their inability to continue the existing scale of grants. These who hold that *at all cost* private enterprise ought to have been encouraged, even at the cost of Government institutions, must remember the position in which Government were placed. Their colleges were not more numerous than they had been fifteen years before. In 1875 there were only 16 high schools in 22 districts against 15 in 1871, but the second-grade anglo-vernacular schools had been reduced from 63 to 47. In the following year these schools were further reduced to 43, and the first-grade middle-class schools were reduced by four. In secondary education, therefore, the Government institutions were as few as possible, and shared with the grants-in-aid the effects of further reduction. In primary education the provincial assignment was as small as possible, and the cess income, which was threatened by famine, could not with any show of faith be transferred from its legitimate object to assist grants-in-aid of secondary education. Under these circumstances Government had no alternative but to request the Director of Public Instruction to propose such reductions as would limit the grants to Rs. 70,000, and yet inflict the least injury on aided and deserving schools. Aided school-managers were invited to a conference, and the position of affairs explained. It was agreed that the salary and matriculation grants should be abolished, and that the grants for passing F.A. and B.A. examinations should be reduced by 50 per cent. These proposals were sanctioned and took effect in 1876. The limitation of the grants to Rs. 70,000 was never however intended to be permanent, and after 1878, as the financial pressure caused by the famine was lightened, Government not merely increased their fixed grant, but re-affirmed their intention to sanction larger allotments according as the number and efficiency of aided institutions increased. Such was the history of the reductions in 1876, which have been criticised by some of the witnesses; and, as no one will assert that cess funds or the very small provincial assignment to primary education could have been diverted, it is clear that the only alternative was for Government to close, as a temporary measure, one or more of its old high schools or colleges, or else reduce the grants-in-aid of secondary education. The former course would not only have been extremely unpopular and have involved a great waste of money, but it would have been a departure from the policy of providing each district with one high school, and its feeders, which was carefully considered and adopted in the infancy of the department. Beyond stating the alternative involved, it is not necessary here to discuss the merits or demerits of the established policy of Government, or review the comparative results in quantity and quality and the comparative cost of education in Government, secondary and aided secondary institutions. The facts given in the subjoined statement must speak for themselves and furnish their own answer to the charge which has sometimes been made that Government are indifferent to the claims of aided institutions:—

Statement showing the Grants-in-aid paid from whatever Funds every fifth year from 1871 to 1881 in British Districts only. Grants for Buildings paid from the Public Works Budget are included (see Notes appended).

	Colleges.			High Schools.			Middle Class Schools.			Primary Schools.			Girls' Schools.			Special Schools.			Miscellaneous.			Total.		
	1871.	1876.	1881.	1871.	1876.	1881.	1871.	1876.	1881.	1871.	1876.	1881.	1871.	1876.	1881.	1871.	1876.	1881.	1871.	1876.	1881.	1871.	1876.	1881.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Payment-by-results	950	1,200	1,900	32,416	34,573	4,859 *b*	19,935	19,627	39,759	1,545	3,041	4,565	5,984	12,351	18,916	...	...	...	...	...	...	60,830 *l*	70,792*m*	69,999*n*
Buildings	61,308	...	...	334	20,089	14,018	...	11,700	...	...	...	...	...	...	5,134	204	204	391	...	...	...	61,846	31,993	19,543
Fixed grants	...	...	...	...	11,280	13,343	18,076	2,260	5,260	...	100	100	900	1,200	...	24,443*f*	18,029*g*	5,600*h*	850*j*	900*j*	900*j*	44,269	33,769	25,203
Grants to Indigenous Schools	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2,944*d*	1,167*e*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2,944	1,167
Other Grants	...	...	4,043*a*	...	...	...	2,750 *c*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	72 *i*	14,929*k*	...	...	17,679	...	4,115
Total	62,258	1,200	5,943	32,750†	65,942†	32,220†	40,761†	33,587†	45,019†	1,545	6,085	5,832	6,884†	13,551†	24,050†	24,647	18,233	6,063	15,779	900	900	1,84,624	1,39,498	1,20,027

a For apparatus.

b The decrease in 1881 is owing to new classification and to the awards for 1880-81 to certain schools having been paid in 1881-82.

c Grant-in-aid given to the Diocesan Board of Education for its School at Panchgani, being half the estimated cost of the school during the first year of its existence.

d Includes Rs. 2,598 paid from local funds.

e Paid from local funds.

f School of Art (Sir Jamsetji Jijibhai) Bombay . . . 11,000
David Sassoon Reformatory, including rations* for dieting boys 13,443
24,443

* This allowance was taken out of the Educational Budget in 1876-77.

g On account of David Sassoon Reformatory.

h David Sassoon Reformatory . . 3,600
Parack's School of Art, Surat . . 2,000
5,600

i For Industrial School at Pandharpur paid from local funds.

j

	1871.	1876.	1881.
For Mechanics' Institute . . .	250	300	300
For Geographical Society . . .	600	600	600
	850	900	900

k Scholarships for European and Eurasian boys in high schools and colleges . Rs. 12,839
Special capitation allowance to Africans at Sharanpur . . . . . Rs. 2,090
Total Rs. 14,929

l Including Rs. 14,262, being awards for 1869-70 paid in 1870-71, and excluding Rs. 95 for 1870-71 paid in 1871-72.

m Including Rs. 2,467, being awards for 1874-75 paid in 1875-76, and excluding Rs. 15,173 for 1875-76 paid in 1876-77.

n Including Rs. 9,578 for 1879-80 paid in 1880-81 and excluding Rs. 20,381 for 1880-81 paid in 1881-82.

† Including grants to schools for Europeans and Eurasians.

NOTES ON THE STATEMENT PRINTED ABOVE.

Results-grants.—1.—The return gives the sums paid, but the awards are a more certain sign of Government liabilities. The awards for the three years were as under —

	1870-71.	1875-76.	1880-81.
Award in rupees	46,663	83,498	80,802

From 1877 reduced grants have been given.

Buildings.—2.—The grant for 1871 was for St. Xavier's College, and was the largest grant, Rs. 61,308, made in any single year up to the end of 1880-81.

Fixed grants.—3.—Rs. 11,000 was paid to the Sir Jamsetji Jijibhai School of Art in 1870-71, but this institution was a Government school in the following years.

The grant to the Byculla Education Society was reduced from Rs. 8,576 in 1871 to Rs. 5,280 in 1873, owing to the closing of a branch school at Kandala and to a reduction in the number of soldiers' orphans.

The grant to the Rustamji's Gujarathi school was reduced from Rs. 3,500 in 1871 to Rs. 2,260 in 1873, owing to the conversion of one of the schools into a Government school.

The grant to the Sassoyon Reformatory sank from Rs. 13,443 in 1871 and Rs. 18,029 in 1876 to Rs. 3,600 in 1881, as rations were no longer charged to education in the last year. The charge now appears in the budget for police or jails.

Other grants.—4.—In 1871 scholarships to European and Eurasian boys came to Rs. 12,839 These allowances were afterwards stopped.

In 1871 the capitation-allowance for liberated slave-children at Sharanpur came to Rs. 2,090. The charge did not continue in consequence of orders issued by Government for landing liberated slaves at Zanzibar instead of Bombay.

Collegiate education.

When we pass from secondary to collegiate education, the salient features of the period under review will be found to be identical with those already traced in the last few paragraphs. The same policy which induced Government to reserve the cess contribution entirely for primary education, to pioneer secondary education in its higher branches in backward districts without increasing the total cost of secondary education, and to trust to aided effort for any extension of middle-class schools, necessarily forbade any extension of colleges. An improvement and enlargement of the course of study was aimed at, but the cost of increased efficiency was to be met by higher fees, and not by Government. On a comparison of 1880-81 with 1870-71 it will be found that the Government expenditure on its colleges had increased by about 9 per cent., whilst college fees had increased in the same period from Rs. 12,570 to Rs. 47,648, or nearly 280 per cent.

The Elphinstone Arts College, Bombay.
The Deccan Arts College Poona.
The Grant Medical College, Bombay.
The Law School, Bombay.
The Poona Civil Engineering College.
The Gujarath Provincial College, Ahmedabad.

The Government colleges of arts, law, medicine, and engineering mentioned in the margin were six at the beginning of the decade with an attendance of 627, and remained six at the close of the period with an attendance of 925. During this period however the Gujarath provincial college had a chequered career. In 1856 Rs. 50,000 were raised by public subscriptions, which were afterwards increased to Rs. 70,000. Government gave a contribution equal to the interest of the endowment fund, and the college started eventually with a monthly expenditure of Rs. 430. The law class was closed in 1872, and the college ceased to exist. In 1879 it was re-opened and seemed to promise better results. In 1880-81 its fee-receipts rose from Rs. 935 to Rs. 1,942, but when the results of the University examinations disappointed public opinion, the college again commenced to decline. In 1879 the department endeavoured to induce the trustees to assume the entire management of the institution, but they declined to do so. The practical failure of the college is much to be regretted, because the province of Gujarath

is in many respects distinct from the rest of the Presidency, and whilst its population is the most wealthy and contented in the Presidency, they dislike the introduction of foreigners from the Deccan or other provinces into the administration. It was hoped by the public-spirited inhabitants of Ahmedabad who endowed the college, that they would found an institution which would supply their province with the educated talent required for its administration, and their disappointment is a matter for more than provincial regret.

Education of Chiefs.

A few special matters in connection with the collegiate history of this decade deserve notice. Special efforts have been successfully made to educate the sons of Native Chiefs and fit them for the discharge of the responsible duties which will devolve on them. The Rájkumár college in Káthiáwár founded in 1870-71 contained 37 scholars in 1880-81, and had gained an assured position in public estimation. In 1880 the Rájárám high school in Kolhápur was raised to the status of a college with a Sirdárs' class attached.

University changes affecting colleges and schools.

In this period also the University made certain changes which have affected colleges and schools. The examinations for matriculation have been held at certain district centres to meet the convenience of candidates. Care is however taken to render the oral examination and the assessment of marks for answers to the printed papers as uniform as possible. The introduction of a science course, and the institution of a degree of bachelor of science has already been noticed. Changes have also been introduced into the first examination in arts. In 1880 the title of the examination was changed to that of the previous examination, and undergraduates were permitted to appear for it one term earlier than formerly. The curriculum was re-adjusted in accordance with this alteration.

Female Education.

In the promotion of female education generally the decade has witnessed solid progress. At the end of the period there were 298 primary schools for girls attended by 17,612 children, whilst 2,745 girls were attending mixed schools. In all 20,357 girls were under instruction. In 1871 there were only 9,190 girls attending 218 institutions. The provision of trained mistresses has also been increased. The training school at Hyderabad in Sind had unfortunately to be closed, as the trained mistresses would not accept service away from Hyderabad. But the Poona female training college and another at Ahmedabad were doing excellent work which promises well for the future extension of female education. An interesting attempt has been made to connect female education with the colleges, and in a direction that cannot but prove of inestimable practical service. The Maráthi midwife class in the Grant Medical College was re-opened in 1875-76. The stipends of the midwives are provided by native benefactors, and two classes are maintained one for Maráthi and the other for Gujuráthi women. It should also be mentioned as a hopeful sign that the list of matriculated candidates for the University has lately contained the names of more than one successful female candidate.

Muhammadan Education.

The education of Muhammadans occupies a special section in the annual administration of the department, and therefore receives a special attention. For their education in the districts independent Hindustáni schools are either opened or a Hindustáni class attached to a vernacular school. Muhammadan Deputy Inspectors have been appointed to inspect these schools, and at the end of the period under review there were 35,865 Muhammadan children at schools connected with the department. But the most promising feature in connection with the progress of Musalman education during the past decade, has been the formation and recognition of a society known as the Anjuman-i-Islam, which, it is hoped, will in time establish a net-work of secular schools in Bombay. This society is so important that it was felt advisable to make special rules for its assistance. At present it receives a fixed subsidy of Rs. 500 a month from Government. By the end of the year 1880-81 the society's first school was fairly started. Its Hindustáni and Anglo-Hindustáni Departments, together with a large class of children reading the Kurán, contained in all 102 pupils. Since then the operations of the society have been extended.

Municipal Contributions.

The subject of municipal assistance to education deserves notice. In some of the statements which have been given, a note has been added showing the amount of assistance rendered by municipalities. The Sukkur municipality in Sind is a remarkable and solitary instance of a municipality taking over the management of its schools and administering them with success. Bombay, Surat and Ahmedabad have shown an interest in education which has been generally wanting elsewhere. The large municipality of Poona, which is the centre of a public-spirited association called the Sárvajanik Sabhá, has been conspicuous for its aboslute indifference to the very flourishing schools which the department and private enterprise have opened in that city. Its indifference to the progress of female education has been mentioned by more than one witness before the Commission. In 1871 the total municipal grants to education were Rs. 54,602, and in 1881-82 they were Rs. 81,180. This indicates some improvement, but, as the annual municipal income of the Bombay Presidency now exceeds sixty lákhs of rupees, the contribution does not amount to much more than one per cent. This indifference might possibly have been terminated had Government interfered with authority. The Mofussil Municipal Act, Bombay Act VI, 1873, section 21, renders municipal income liable to defray "such proportion of the cost of construction, maintenance, and support of any schools and colleges within municipal limits as the municipality may think fit." The Bombay City Municipality Act (Bombay Act III, 1872) section 137, contains a similar provision. But, inasmuch as these provisions of law are purely permissive, and the residents in municipalities have been permitted year by year to absorb a larger share of the cess and a larger proportion of the grants-in-aid, the application of municipal income to education has not been enforced. It is to be hoped that the local scheme of self-government will lead to a change in this respect, and set free some of the funds now spent in the towns for the extension of primary education in the district.

Having now reviewed in detail the progress of primary, secondary, collegiate, and female education in Bombay during the 10 years preceding that with which our report is mainly concerned, we append a statement which shows at a glance the total expenditure on the whole field of education in 1871 and 1881 respectively, with the results attained. At a cost of Rs. 23,69,807, 316,974 pupils were being educated in the latter year throughout the Presidency. The expenditure in 1881 was 22 per cent. greater than in 1871, but the attendance had improved by 78 per cent. The cost of education per head had also decreased from Rs. 15 to a little over Rs. 13. The expenditure includes money sunk in buildings and endowments, as well as the expenditure incurred by the managers of private schools. The statement, however, excludes indigenous schools and all other educational institutions which are not receiving aid or inspection from the department. It is therefore incomplete as a statement showing either the total number of children under instruction or the indirect results of the work done by the State in stimulating a demand for education which overflows into indigenous schools, or creating a class of trained schoolmasters who find employment in managing private schools. But it shows the direct results of an expenditure which is more or less controlled by the State, and the table is sufficiently detailed to enable the Commission to draw an accurate inference from the figures which are set down—

Statement showing the Total Expenditure on Education with the Number of Pupils in Schools connected with Government.

	Expenditure.						Numbers of Pupils.					
	From Departmental Funds.			From Private Funds of Aided Schools.	From Funds of Schools in Native States, &c.	Grand Total.	In Departmental Schools and Colleges.	* In Police and Jail Schools.	In Aided Schools.	Total Government and Aided for British Districts.	In Inspected Schools, &c., in Native States.	Grand Total for the Presidency.
	Imperial or Provincial Budget.	Other Funds administered by the Department.	Total.									
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.						
1870-71 . .	11,30,013	9,66,369	20,96,382	3,11,163	2,72,234	26,79,779	139,777	60	9,147	148,984§	28,998	177,982§
1880-81 . .	11,38,086	11,51,290	22,89,376	3,79,529	6,00,902†	32,69,807	225,331	1,336	19,979	246,646§	70,328‡	316,974§

* The cost of these schools is not known, but is included in the Police and jail accounts.
† Includes Rs. 70,937 spent on buildings, but by mistake not included in the report.
‡ Includes 1,499 pupils in inspected schools in British districts.
§ Including the pupils in schools for Europeans and Eurasians.

We have already referred to those local fund and municipal statutes which contain any reference to education. We have also indicated the general policy pursued by the Department in regard to every class of school and every grade of instruction. It seems, therefore, unnecessary to show in any great detail how far this policy is in accordance with the directions of the Secretary of State. But a few remarks on this subject may be made.

The educational policy in Bombay compared with the Despatches of the Secretary of State.

The diffusion of "such education through all classes of the people as may be practically useful in their different spheres of life" has been attempted by enlarging the scheme of studies in the village and town-schools so as to make them severally the centres of a sound and practical education. The immense popularity of the cess and Government middle-class schools seems to indicate that this object has been attained. The words of the Secretary of State's Despatch No. 12, dated December 24th, 1863, emphatically repudiating the neglect of primary education until education had filtered downwards from the upper strata of society, have received full attention in Bombay, and the direct instrumentality of Government in providing elementary education (enjoined in paragraph 50 of Despatch No. 4, dated April 7th, 1859) has been employed. The main strength of the Department has been devoted to the application of the cess-funds to the objects for which they are contributed. In doing this there has arisen a circumstance, which has somewhat prevented one section of the native community from availing itself of the departmental system. The ways and means of primary education consist, as has been shown, of cess funds and a provincial assignment. Nearly the whole of the assignment has been expended in the towns, and the cess fund in the villlages for the benefit of the cess-payers. Thus, the large aboriginal population of the presidency, who neither live in towns nor contribute any appreciable proportion of the cess income, have not enjoyed the same advantages as the people of the plains. They form, however, we believe, the only exception to that general diffusion of knowledge which the Despatch of 1854 had in view. In secondary and higher education the policy laid down in the Despatch of April 25th, 1864, of applying " the resources of the State so that the richer classes of the people may gradually be induced to provide for their own education," has been practically attained by increasing the fees in the middle and high schools and colleges. In 1870-71 the total income raised by fees was Rs. 2,28,615, and in 1880-81 it was Rs. 3,09,558, or 33 per cent. more than in 1871. Our report has already shown that the cost to Government of secondary education at the end of the decade was less than 50 per cent. of the total cost of Government middle-class and high schools. In providing colleges the State, whilst carrying on improvements, has been careful not to increase largely its obligations. The grant-in-aid rules have been fully described, and need no further explanation here. On the whole, we are of opinion that the system of education in Bombay, which we have traced from 1855 to 1881, has been not inconsistent with the intentions of the Education Code of 1854, and the several Despatches from the Secretary of State which followed the issue of that comprehensive document.

Map

OF THE

BOMBAY PRESIDENCY

Showing the

EDUCATIONAL INSPECTORATES

Scale 40 Miles to 1 Inch.

Reduced to ½ Scale from Original.
Govt. Photozinco. Office, Poona, 1886.

CHAPTER III.

DESCRIPTION OF THE ACTUAL STATE OF EDUCATION ON MARCH 31ST, 1882.

PREFACE.

Physical Characteristics, Social Condition, and Languages of the People.

A division of the Presidency into the five separate provinces of inspection recognised by the Department, although it is open to criticism as an ethnical or geographical division, will best answer the requirements of this report. In a subject which opens out such a large field for discussion it is however necessary to be as concise as possible, and confine ourselves to mere notes. The accompanying map will show the position and boundaries of the five charges that are supervised by Educational Inspectors. The province of Sind is well defined, and consists of five districts—Upper Sind Frontier, Shikárpur, Thar and Párkar, Hyderabad, and Karáchi. The Political State of Khairpur is included in this Division, but it possesses no schools which are under inspection. The second Division is called the Northern Division, and forms the Gujaráth province with its five Districts—Ahmedabad, Panch Mahals, Kaira, Broach, and Surat. The Political States which are associated with this and the other charges will be noticed hereafter. The third Division, called the North-East Division, comprises Khándesh, Násik, and Ahmednagar. The Central Division includes the Bombay Island and the Districts of Kolába, Thána, and Ratnágiri below the Ghâts, with Poona, Sholápur, and Satára which are in the Deccan, besides several Native States. The rest of the Presidency forms the Southern Division, with the Districts of Belgaum, Dhárwár, and Kaládgi above the Ghâts, and North Kánara below the Sahyádri range.

Divisions of the Presidency.

The province of Sind is in every respect behind the rest of the Presidency, and the following notes will account in some measure for this result:—

Sind Division.

(i) The population is very sparse and poor. The area exclusive of Khairpur is 48,014 square miles, and the population numbers 2,413,823, or a little more than 50 to the square mile. There are only 12 towns in the province, and their population aggregates 260,842.

(ii) The climate is exceedingly malarious. The alternations of cold and heat are excessive, and the annual inundation causes frequent floods. School-houses are not rarely washed away; and schools are frequently emptied by epidemics of fever.

(iii) The Muhammadans form 78 per cent. of the population, of whom only 1·4 per cent. are educated in any sense of the word. There are constant immigrations of Muhammadans from Biluchistan and Afghanistan. Those who immigrate for labour on the canals and railway return when the inundation commences, and contribute nothing to school attendance. The predatory tribes who are gradually settling down to a peaceable life on our frontier despise education. In the Upper Sind Frontier District there are 108,023 Muhammadans, most of whom are naturalised tribes. Only 1,160 Muhammadans in the district are returned as able to read or write.

(iv) The rest of the population are so various and speak such a variety of tongues that the progress of education is both slow and expensive. The Hindus form 12·64 per cent. of the population, and of them 15 in a hundred are educated. But they are divided into a remarkable variety of sects. The Vaisya caste is the most intelligent, and four out of five of them belong to the Lohána family, which are again divided into the well-known Amils who monopolise the public service, Sávkárs (merchants), Hatwáras (shop-keepers), and Pokhwáras (agriculturists). The merchants and shop-keepers insist on learning an alphabet of their own called the Banya-Sindhi.

(v) The Sikhs form 5·26 per cent. of the population and return 22 in a hundred as educated. But their education consists in deciphering the Gurmukhi character. They are also divided into Lohánas and Akalis. The other classes consist of Aborigines, who form 3·56 of the population, but contribute not two in a thousand of the educated

classes of the province. The Christians and Pársis form barely ·30 per cent. of the population, but 65 in a hundred of their numbers are educated.

From these notes it can readily be understood that the vast area of the Province, its confusion of races and tongues, its malarious climate, and the practical impossibility of accommodating instruction to meet the peculiar wishes of every class, offer a very real barrier to the extension of education. The recognised vernacular of the province, Sindhi, is itself a compromise, and receives a large admixture of Arabic or Sanskrit according to the race of the speaker. Even the character must be altered to suit the taste of the Musalman and Hindu population. The predatory tribes have brought their own vernacular with them, and the Sikhs and Pársis maintain their own foreign tongue. Still, a large and increasing demand for education exists amongst the Hindu Lohánas, and the progress which has been made since Mr. Fulton re-organised the Department seven years ago offers every promise of ultimate success.

Guzarath or Northern Division.

The conditions of life and society in Sind are entirely reversed in the next Division of the Presidency to which attention must now be turned. In the Northern Division of Guzaráth there is a general and active spirit of enterprise, to which even the Musalman community are not strangers. There is a healthy division of trades and occupations, the fruits of agriculture are assured, and everywhere there are signs of prosperity and contentment. The following notes will serve to explain the cause of this difference, and account for the satisfactory progress which education has made, and may still be expected to make:—

(i) The whole population of the Division numbers in the five British Districts and the Baroda Camp 2,862,355, and in the Native States under inspection by the Department, namely, Mahi Kántha, Káthiáwar, Rewa Kántha, Cutch, Surat Agency, Cambay, and Pálanpur, 4,737,044: making a total of 7,599,399. As, however, our principal attention will be devoted to the operations of Government in British Districts, it is advisable to exclude from present consideration the Native States. The area of the Division, excluding them, is 10,158 square miles, with an average population of 281 to the square mile. There are 30 towns, and of these there are two in which the population exceeds 100,000.

(ii) The climate, though hot in the hot-season, is generally healthy. Between the sea-coast line with its strip of sand and low salt marsh, and the hilly tracts of Meywár or the Satpura spurs and the Dangs, there spreads from north to south a rich alluvial plain, which gives its wealth of jowári, wheat, tobacco, rice, and cotton to the province. The Kunbis of Gujaráth are the most enterprising cultivators in the Presidency. Besides them there are numerous craftsmen, weavers, gold and silver-smiths, and calico-printers who have obtained a more than local celebrity. With a rich soil and abundant openings for educated talent in trade and commerce the upper classes of society are independent, and the middle classes ready to improve their position.

(iii) Unlike Sind, the bulk of the population are Hindus, being nearly 79 per cent. The Muhammadans contribute 10 per cent., the Aborigines nearly 8 per cent., and the Jains 2 per cent. There is no difficulty about the vernacular. Of the total population of 2,862,355, Gujaráthi is the language of 2,693,620. In the purely Muhammadan schools Hindustáni is taught, but many of the Musalmans* prefer to learn Gujaráthi, which is the common language of the province. There is an active demand for elementary and secondary instruction, but it is a remarkable circumstance that the provincial college has never been well patronised. Some explanation of this fact may be afforded by the numerous openings which attract the educated classes as soon as they are qualified to fill them.

With these preliminary notes a few statistics, illustrating the diffusion of education throughout society, will suggest in what direction future progress may be expected.

* 63,072 Muhammadan traders, and 121,164 Muhammadan cultivators speak Gujárathi.

Excluding the Baroda Camp and confining our attention to the British districts which contain a population of 2,857,731, we find 56,938* children under instruction, and 166,666 persons returned as instructed. Thus 7·8 of the entire population have attended school at some time or another. The Hindus contribute 72 per cent. of the educated classes, but only seven in a hundred Hindus are educated. The Muhammadans contribute 11·7 and nearly nine in a hundred Muhammadans are educated. Of the Muhammadans the most enterprising class are the Boharás, who, whether engaged as pedlars or peasants, are generally prosperous. Statistics show that, since Government opened the cess-schools, the Muhammadans have gained upon the Hindus. Whilst education was dependent on indigenous schools the Bráhman masters did not encourage Muhammadan education, but since the Government schools were opened the Muhammadan population have in Surat and Ahmedabad overtaken the Hindus and reversed the position which the two classes occupied even ten years ago. The Jains contribute the next most important share of the educated community, namely, 11·2 per cent., which is only ½ per cent. less than the Muhammadans. Their women, however, are almost entirely illiterate except in Ahmedabad. The Jains form only 2 per cent. of the whole population, and 38 in every hundred are educated or under instruction. There are 16,448 Pársis in the province, of whom 46 per cent. are returned as educated. They contribute therefore no less than 3·3 per cent. of the educated community. Amongst the few Christians in the Division 49 in a hundred are educated. The aborginal races are better educated than in Sind, but are still very backward. They form 8 per cent. of the population, but only ·3 per cent. of its educated community. Not four in every thousand can read or write. The aboriginal tribes, who are chiefly Bhils, Kolis, Dhondiás, Chodrás, and Náikrás, are called by the people of the plains Káliparaj, or black men. In Surat they form nearly 19 per cent. of the whole population, and in the Tálnka of Mándvi nearly two-thirds of the whole community. In the Panch Maháls the aborigines, who are chiefly Bhils, form 30 per cent. of the whole community. The Kolis of Broach are a specially orderly and industrious class, but in Kaira the same class gave no little anxiety to the authorities in the time of the mutiny. In 1868 a military force took the field to suppress the disturbances of the Náikrás, who were famous for their savage cruelty and fanaticsm. Although the aboriginal tribes have now settled down to peaceable pursuits, it is necessary to remember these events. Natural instincts of disorder cannot be removed in a single generation, and difficulties which attend the spread of education amongst the aboriginal tribes of Gujaráth must not be forgotten.

North-Eastern Division.

The third division of the Presidency is the North-Eastern Division, comprising Kándesh, Násik and Ahmedanagar, with a population of 2,769,665. It is the smallest division, and contains no Native States. It is difficult to generalize about a division which contains such different nationalities and is subjected to such different influences as these three districts. A few notes on each district will therefore serve as the best preface to the statistics which follow:—

(i) Khándesh, enclosed like a basin between the Sátpura hills on the north, the Ajanta range on the south, the Sahyádri on the west, and elevated ground on the east, contains a large number of small irrigation works and a vast area of mountain and forest. To the former it owes its rich crops of cotton,† oil-seeds, and grain, and its partial insurance against famine, and to the latter its large aboriginal population. Seventy-seven per cent. of the population are Hindus, seven Muhammadans and 14 per cent. aborigines who are chiefly Bhils.

(ii) The Násik District, which was formed partly out of Khándesh, has a large Hindu population and a considerable but smaller aboriginal population. Eighty-seven per cent. of the community are Hindus, 4·5 per cent. are Muhammadans, and 6·6 per cent. are aborigines, who are chiefly Kolis, Bhils, Thákurs and Káthodis (catechu-makers). The district, especially in the south, is more liable to famine than Khándesh.

* Throughout this section the figures are taken from the recent census. The returns of children under instruction are known to be less than they should be, and the explanation is probably due to the fact that several pupils still at school or college have entered themselves as "instructed."

† There is a large cotton-mill at Jalgaon, and two cotton-presses at Dhulia.

(iii) The third district, Ahmednagar, is the most liable to chronic famine and the ravages of locusts of any district in the Presidency. Its vital loss since last census is 22,710. Not even one per cent. of its population is aboriginal, but 5 per cent. are Muhammadans. No less than two per cent. are Jains,* who perhaps are the cause and the consequence of its agricultural distress, and more than six in a thousand of the population are Christians. For the rest the Hindus form 91 per cent. The small number of aborigines, and the large number of Jains and Christians are the distinctive ethnical features of this district. The physical features of this district are those of most Deccan districts flanked by the Ghâts. The country sinks gradually into the eastern plain. Extreme poverty is the general characteristic of the district, but this influence, so adverse to the spread of education, is in some measure counteracted by the activity of the missionary societies, as well as by the Department. The opening of the Dhond-Manmár Railway is also improving the prospects of the district.

Taking the division as a whole its population number 2,769,665, of whom 211,721 boys and 203,728 girls are of the school-going age. Of the whole population only 109,683 have ever attended any sort of school, being 3·9 per cent. of the whole. The proportion of instructed to the whole population of each district is largest in Ahmednagar, where it is 4·3 per cent.; least in Khándesh, where it is 3·7 per cent.; and in Násik the proportion is 3·8 per cent. To the total instructed population of the whole division the various religious classes contribute as follows. The Hindus (excluding aborigines) who form 80 per cent. of the population of the division, contribute 81 per cent. to the educated classes. The Muhammadans contribute 5·3 per cent., the Christians 3·6 per cent. and the aborigines only ·2 per cent. The enterprising Jains contribute as much as 9 per cent. But the proportion of educated members in each class of the community will afford a better idea of the work which has been done and that which remains to be done. Only 3·8 per cent. of the Hindus, 3·4 of the Muhammadans, and ·1 per cent. of the aboriginal races have ever been instructed. On the other hand, 30 per cent. of the Jains and 46 per cent. of the Christian population are educated. Amongst the Muhammadans only 115 females can read or write, and only one woman of the aboriginal classes is returned as having been instructed. The education of the Jains is exclusively confined to the males; whilst on the other hand, amongst the Christians, a large percentage are females. From these figures it is evident that an active demand for education exists amongst the Christian and Jain population of the division; that Mahammadans are not much more backward as a class than the Hindus, and indeed have gained upon them since the introduction of Government schools; whilst a wide and practically untouched field for the extension of education amongst the aboriginal races invites the combined efforts of Government and private enterprise.

Central Division.

The Central Division, consisting of two very dissimilar groups of districts, and the City of Bombay is the most important in the Presidency. It includes, besides Bombay, three Konkan districts—Thána, Kolába and Ratnágiri, all of which have been more or less accessible to the influence of foreign commerce, and the three Deccan districts of Poona, Sátára and Sholapur, of which the first two enjoyed the patronage of the Courts of the Peshwa and the Rája of Sátára, whilst the last was connected with the former glories of the Bijápur dynasty. Both these influences, the influence of maritime commerce on the Anglicised fringe of the coast, and the influence of Court above the Ghâts, have left their traces to the present day on the population of the several districts. Ethnical and historical distinctions have only emphasised the differences which physical features and climate have impressed upon the people. The coast-strip is a fertile level tract varying from 2 to 30 miles in breadth between the sea and the wall of the Sahyádri mountain-range. As the watershed of the central range of the Ghâts drains into the Bay of Bengal, there is no large river-system in the Konkan. But the country is well watered by hill torrents, and intersected by tidal back-waters. It is insured against famine and drought, whilst the rest of the Central Division is peculiarly exposed to their visitations. The climate below the Ghâts is moist and relaxing, whilst above them it is

* No district even in Gujárat, except Ahmedabad; no other Deccan district; and only one in the Southern Division, namely, Belgaum, has so large a proportion of Jains.

bracing and dry. The sea-coasts and creeks afford a livelihood to sailors and fishermen. The fertile plains support the cultivating classes, whilst shepherds (or dhangars), and the aboriginal tribes of Thákurs, Kátkaris and Kolis live in the scattered villages in the highlands. Each Konkan district owes something to the influence of maritime commerce upon its history. The Christian population of Thána nnmber 39,545 or 4·3 per cent. of the population. The Kolába Christian castes are not so numerous, but are descended from the same stock as their Thána neighbours. Their ancestors were the converts of St. Francis Xavier and his successors in the 16th century. Many of them still retain caste-distinctions. To the same sea-influence Ratnágiri owes its large Muhammadan population of 75,788, or more than seven per cent. of its whole population. Their features still bear testimony to the strong strain of foreign blood, both Arab and Persian, which marks their connection with maritime commerce. The aboriginal inhabitants are more numerous in Thána than in the other districts. The large and varied admixture of foreign races in the island of Bombay is too well known to need further comment. The industries of the Konkan districts are also more varied than are found above the Ghâts. The Native Christians are employed in hand-loom-weaving of silk and cotton. There are steam factories for cotton-spinning, dyeing and chemical factories as well as distilleries. With its rich soil, its long sea-coasts and commerce, these various industries, and the large market for labour in Bombay the general condition of the Konkan inhabitants is prosperous. In the rest of the division above the Ghâts these favourable conditions are entirely reversed. Over all sections of the community hangs the constant deadening fear of recurring famine, and the upper classes still look back wistfully to the luxury and splendour of the native Courts and prefer indolence to employment. In their case a social revolution is necessary to adapt them to the altered circumstances of their lives, and like all such revolutions it must be gradual. The Sholápur Muhammadan population constitutes 7·5 per cent. of the entire population of the district, and is very apathetic. The Hindu population throughout the three districts is poor and backward. The landed classes of native gentlemen are large. In the district of Sátára alone nearly one-third of the whole district is held by inámdárs or partially rent-free landholders, who only pay a quit-rent to Government, but their families are large and idle, and they are as a rule poor. With the masses of the people poverty is the necessary result of chronic famine, which depends on natural causes that no human foresight or administrative skill can entirely prevent. The physical features of the Deccan country are similar to those described under Ahmednagar. Poona and Sátára both have a Ghát section, the home of depressed races of Hindus or Muhammadans as the Dauds, whom famine or the pressure of other immigrations has driven to the springs and forests of the Ghâts were they are making a final stand for existence. Sholápur lying more inland has no Ghát section. Except in the two tálukas of Bársi and Karmála there is not even an eminence to relieve the scenery from the bare treeless aspect which is the chief physical peculiarity of the collectorate. As the birth-place of the Marátha dynasty, its history is intimately connected with that of Poona and Sátára. It is the first of the three to mark the approach of famine, and it suffered severely in 1877. Since the census of 1872 its population has decreased by 136,888. Forming originally a part of the Bijápur kingdom, it still contains a large Muhammadan population. Pandharpur, the great scene of pilgrimages to the shrine of Vithoba, attracts nearly 200,000 visitors every year, and helps to disseminate cholera from which this district suffers every year. Scourged by cholera and famine the general condition of the people is unenviable. The bulk of the population are engaged in agriculture, but lately a cotton-mill has been erected at Sholápur.

The population of the division which has been described, exclusive of Bombay and the small Native States or jághirs, is 4,832,745. The Sátára jághirs and other small States, together with the more important State of Sávantvadi over which the Education Department exercises control, contain a population of 624,250. The names of the States included in the Central Division are Sávantvádi with a population of 174,433, the Bhor Jághir with 145,876, Phaltan with 58,402, Aundh with 58,916, Akalkot with 58,040, Jath with 49,486, and Jowhár with a population of 48,556. The Miraj divisions under the same inspector contain 30,541 inhabitants. But beyond mentioning these additions to the responsibilities of the Inspector, Central Division, no detailed notice of them is

required in a review which is specially concerned with the progress of education in British districts. Excluding, for the present, notice of Bombay with its population of 773,196, it appears that out of the total British population of the division only 226,743 or 4·6 per cent. are returned as having ever received any sort of instruction. Of the instructed classes, as might be expected, the district of Poona containing the Deccan capital of the Presidency claims the largest share. Of its population 6·4 per cent. have been instructed. The order of the rest is as follows. In Sholápur 4·8 per cent., in Kolába 4·6, in Ratnágiri 4·4, in Thána 4, and in Sátára only 3·9 per cent. belong to any but the illiterate classes. Sátára compares favourably with the other districts in regard to children under instruction, but having been more recently annexed than Poona or Sholápur its proportion of grown-up educated persons is less than in the case of the older districts. Divided according to the leading religions or classes of the community, the Hindus contribute 81·3 per cent. of the instructed classes of the division outside Bombay, but only 4·1 per cent. of the Hindu population can read or write. The Muhammadans show much better results. They contribute 7·2 per cent. to the educated classes of the division, but 8·7 per cent. of their number have received some instruction. As might be expected, Ratnágiri stands first in the division. Its Muhammadan population constitutes 7·6 per cent. of the entire population of the district, and of them 11·4 per cent. are educated. The depressed condition of the Sholápur Muhammadans is proved by the circumstance that, although they number 7·5 of the whole population, only 3·4 per cent. of them are other than illiterate. The Christian population of the division are important, but they are more illiterate than might be expected. They contribute only 4·3 per cent. of the instructed population, and only 18 per cent. of them can read or write. The statistics of the Thána district are in this respect remarkable. There are 39,545 Christians in Thána, or 4·3 per cent. of the entire population. Of these 36,809 cannot read or write. In other words, only 6·9 per cent. of the Christian population have ever received any sort of instruction. It is remarkable to notice the contrast in this respect between the education of the Muhammadans of Ratnágiri and that of the Thána Christians, as both classes owe their existence to maritime commerce and the influx or influence of foreign traders. The enterprising Jains maintain in this division the honorable distinction which they have gained in others. Notwithstanding that their females contribute nothing to educational returns, the community contribute 5 per cent. of the educated classes of the division outside Bombay, and 28 per cent. of them are educated. The aboriginal population is inconsiderable except in Thána, where out of an aboriginal population of 13,078 there is only one boy at school and four men who have ever learnt to read or write. The Pársi population of the same district numbers 3,315, but of these 42 per cent. are educated, of whom 311 are females.

Bombay City.

The City of Bombay requires separate notice, as the diffusion of its special statistics over the six rural districts with which it is associated would only be misleading. Its population is 773,196, of whom 23·2 per cent. are returned as having been instructed or being at school. The Hindus form nearly two-thirds of the population, but they contribute only 49·4 per cent. to the instructed classes, and only 17·6 per cent. of them are instructed. The Muhammadans number 158,713, and contribute 17 per cent. of the educated classes, which gives nearly 19 educated Muhammadans in every hundred. The Christians number 42,327, of whom 47 per cent. only are educated at all, and the percentage the community contribute to the educated classes of the city and island is 11. The Jains, as usual, notwithstanding the number of women who are uninstructed, contribute 5·2 per cent. of the educated class; and 54 per cent. of their community can read and write. The enterprise of the Pársis and their patronage of female education give the most satisfactory feature to the statistics of education in Bombay. The community number only 48,597, or a little more than 6 per cent. of the city population, yet they contribute 16 per cent. of the entire educated classes, and 60 out of every hundred of their number are educated. They have nearly as many girls at school as the whole Hindu population, and their educated females far outnumber any other classes of the community. The Pársis are therefore the best educated of the population; the Jains stand next, and Christians third: whilst the Mahammadans have outstripped the Hindus. The statistics of the previous census show that not merely in Bombay, but also throughout the Presidency, the Muhammadan population have taken

more advantage of the State system of education than the Hindus. The Bráhmans have at all times kept private schools which were attended by Hindus, whilst the Muhammadans seemed lacking in the enterprise or organization necessary for extending the means of instruction to their community. But the State-school is open to all classes, and the exclusiveness of the Hindu indigenous schools is superseded. The Muhammadans have taken advantage of this opportunity and largely attend the vernacular schools of the district. The vernacular is the language useful in commerce and business, and, although where the Muhammadan community is large they prefer a Hindustani-teaching school, they do not despise the advantage of attending the Maráthi or Gujaráthi school. The total population of the school-going age in the British Districts of the Central Division numbers 432,066 boys and 408,824 girls.

The dialects of the Central Division include Gujaráthi, Maráthi and Hindustáni. Thána marks the division between the Maráthi and Gujaráthi speaking country. North of the marsh of Dáhanu the aspect of the country rather resembles Gujaráth than Konkan, and south of it the change in the language becomes rapidly apparent. The difference between the Maráthi of the Konkan and Deccan is marked by the same influence of commerce which has already been noticed. Arabic, Persian, and even European words have all contributed to the local Konkani dialects. Some of the chief Konkani dialects are called Málwani, Gomántki (Goa) and Rájápuri, and generally it is said that the Maráthi language undergoes a fresh change in every 12 miles of the Konkan coast.

Southern or Karnátic Division.

The last division of inspection includes the four districts of North Kánara, Dhárwar, Belgaum and Kaládgi, respecting which a few notes will suffice as an introduction to the statistics of education which follow. Their population numbering 2,807,254, comprises 88 per cent. Hindus, 9 per cent. Muhammadans, and 2 per cent. Jains. To maritime commerce the Muhammedan and Christian population of Kánara owe their existence. There are nearly 15,000 Christians in Kánara who form 3·4 per cent. of the population. Kánara is a district of dense forest, rude cultivation, and malarious climate. Kaládgi is a level tree-less plain, somewhat isolated in regard to communications and terribly liable to famine. On the other hand, the physical features and climate of Belgaum and Dhárwár are pleasant. The latter district owes its prosperity to a rich soil and contains 14 towns. The density of its population is 194 to the square mile, which is greater than any other district above the Sahyádri range, except Sátára. The average density of the whole division is 148 to the square mile. Of the school-going age there are 212,570 boys and 208,517 girls. The vernacular of the whole division is Kánarese, but where the Muhammadan element is strong Hindustáni is spoken.

In this division, excluding Native States, there are only 146,418 persons who can, or are learning to, read and write, or 5·2 per cent. of the population. The number of persons so educated in each separate district varies with the prosperity of the community. Kánara, despite its forests and malaria, stands first, it is true, with an educated population of 6·7 per cent., but the population is so small that the Christians and educated or trading classes, who value education, exercise an abnormal influence on the returns. The Bráhmans of Kánara number 63,856, whereas their number in all the three other districts together is only 79,181. Dhárwar contains only 28,403 Bráhmans, but with its rich soil it stands next, and 5·9 per cent. of the population are educated, whilst in Belgaum 4·4 and in Kaládgi only 4·1 per cent. have ever learnt even the three R's. The Hindu population contribute 88 per cent. of the instructed community, but only 5·2 in every hundred Hindus know how to read or write. The Muhammadans contribute 6·6 of the educated classes, but only 3·7 per cent. of them are educated. The Christians contribute 2 per cent., but 12·2 per cent. of this community are educated. There are only 138 Pársis in the whole division, of whom 57 per cent. are educated. The Jains form 3·1 per cent. of the educated classes, but only 7·6 per cent. of them are instructed. The proportion of educated men to the whole community of each religious division of the population is thus lower in the southern than in the neighbouring divisions of the Bombay Presidency.

Under the control of the Inspector of this division there are several Native States with a population of 1,308,164. Of these the State of Kolhápur with a population of 800,189 is the most considerable, and having been from one cause

or another for a long time under British supervision, education has made fair progress in it. Several of the Southern Marátha jághírs are also included in the division, namely, the jághír of the senior family of Miraj, Mudhol, Sángli, Rámdurg, Jamkhandi, and Kurunnvád, as well as the Muhammadan State of Sávanúr which is politically attached to Dhárwár. In Kolháp ur and the Southern Marátha jághírs, the educated community number respectively 31,948 and 29,785, being 3·9 and 5·6 per cent. of the populations of those States.

The whole Presidency.

Having noticed the salient features in each division, we conclude this preface with a few remarks on the Presidency as a whole, and a table which will sum up the statistics which have been given. The population of the Presidency, excluding Aden and the Native States, numbers 16,454,414, giving an average density of 132 to the square mile. There are only 167 towns in the whole area of 124,122 square miles. 74·8 per cent. of the population are Hindus, 18·3 per cent. are Muhammadans, 3·4 aborigines, 1·3 Jains, and only ·8 per cent. Christians. The population of Native States included in the Bombay Presidency is 6,941,249 scattered over an area of 72,450 square miles giving a density of 95·8 to the square mile. The total population of the Presidency is therefore 23,395,663.

The following table will show for each division of British territory the proportion which persons under instruction or instructed bear to the whole community:—

Whole Presidency	6	per cent.
Bombay City	23·2	„
Northern Division	7·8	„
Southern Division	5·2	„
Central Division	4·6	„
Sind Division	4·5	„
North-East Division	3·9	„

It will be observed that the North-East Division stands last, which is partly accounted by for its large aboriginal population. Nearly four in a thousand of the aborigines are instructed or are under instruction in Gujarát, and nearly two in a thousand in Sind. But in the North-East Division and the Central Division only one in a thousand has ever been under instruction, and in the Konkan not even five in ten thousand can read or write. The total population of the school-going age in the Presidency includes 1,274,656 boys, of which 271,469 according to the census or 21 per cent. are under instruction, and 1,193,501 girls, of whom only 18,460, or 1·5 per cent. are at some sort of school.

The following table will show at a glance in what proportion each class of the community in each division has availed itself or is availing itself of the opportunities of instruction afforded to the population, and will therefore suggest the direction which any future extension is likely to take:—

Statement showing what number in every hundred of each class of the community in each division is educated.

Division.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.*	Parsis.	Christians.	Jains.
Bombay Island	17·6	19	60	47	54
Sind	15·7	1·4	65	65	38
Northern Division	7	9	46	49	38
North-East Division	3·8	3·4	54	46	30
Central Division	4·1	8·7	42	...	28
Southern Division	5·2	3·7	57	12·2	7·6

* It has been mentioned in this preface that the Muhammadans chiefly speak the vernacular of the district in which they live. The whole of the Konkani tribes speak Maráthi. In the south the Moplah dialect and Kánarese are used. The habitual language of the chief Muhammadan trading classes is Gujaráthi and Kutchi. The Memons use Sindhi as well. In Gujaráth the bulk of the Muhammadans speak Gujaráthi amongst themselves, but in the Deccan the upper classes use Urdu. The rest speak and correspond in Maráthi, or a mixture of that and Hindi. In Sind outof nearly 2 million Mussalmans only 15,700 speak Hindustáni. In the rest of the Presidency out of 1,134,000 Muhammadans, about 750,000 are Urdu-speakers.

SECTION A.—*Indigenous Schools independent of Departmental aid or inspection.*

Definition of Indigenous School.

1. The institutions described in this section are limited to schools which are conducted by Natives of India more or less on traditionary methods, and are not aided but are inspected by the Educational Department of the British Government or of a Native State.* We employ the term 'school' or 'institution' in this section to mean an assembly of pupils belonging to more than one family or house, and receiving instruction together from a teacher, who has set up on his own account, or is not solely employed as a family-tutor. The inclusion in our returns of single children or, of groups of children of one family privately instructed at home, might possibly have added large numbers of pupils to the total, but the returns themselves would have been confused and misleading.

Extent of Indigenous Schools.

2. The total number of primary indigenous schools in the Bombay Presidency at the end of March last was 3,954 and the number of children attending them 78,205. Of these schools, 3,131 attended by 58,485 pupils were found in British territory, and the remaining 823 schools and 19,720 pupils were registered in the feudatory States. How inadequate the supply must be to the wants of these Native States may be inferred from the fact that, excluding Baroda, their area is 72,450 square miles with a population of 6,941,249. Our returns do not distinguish between rural and urban districts. But it is a well-attested fact that the great majority of the indigenous schools are established in the townships.

Of the higher institutions there were 48 Hindu schools teaching either the Vedas or Classical Sanskrit Literature; 6 Muhammadan Madrasas, teaching Arabic and the Kurán; and 4 Pársi Madrasas teaching chiefly the Zend or Pehlvi scriptures.

These statistics have been collected with considerable care by the Educational and Revenue officers, and they probably form the most complete and accurate record of indigenous schools which has yet been compiled. We give below a table comparing the present returns with the numbers registered in former years. It should be borne in mind, however, that the older returns were in most years compiled partly from rough estimates as well as from actual enumerations of the schools *in situ*, and that their chief value consists in the steady numerical progress which they record between the years 1842 and 1875.

Year.	Class of School.	Number of Schools in British Territory and Native States.	Number of Scholars.	Nature of Enumeration made.
1823	Primary	1,500	31,000	Rough estimate.
	Higher	1	125	
1828	Primary	1,680	33,000	Ditto.
	Higher	1	...	
1842	Primary	1,420	30,000	Estimate made by the Revenue officers.
	Higher	1	...	
1847	Primary	1,751	38,267	Census taken by the Educational Inspectors.
	Higher	1	...	

* See however the note to the first table of paragraph 3 of this section.

Year.	Class of School.		Number of Schools in British Territory and Native States.	Number of Scholars.	Nature of Enumeration made.
1855 .	. . . .	Primary . .	2,386	70,314	Census taken by the Educational officers.
		Higher . .	1	200	
1863 .	. . . .	Primary . .	2,921	77,137	Census taken by the Educational and Revenue officers.
		Higher . .	1	...	
1875 .	. . . .	Primary . .	3,330	78,982	Estimate made by the Educational Inspectors.
		Higher . .	24	...	
1882 .	British Districts.	Primary . .	3,131	58,485	Census by the Educational and Revenue officers.
		Higher . .	58	550	
	Native States .	Primary . .	823	19,720	
		Higher . .	...	...	
	Total for 1882 .		4,012	78,755*	

The returns for 1881-82 show the following distribution by race or caste of the pupils of primary institutions:—

British Districts.

Race or caste.	Number.	Percentage.
Bráhmans	3,908	6·68
Other Hindus	34,254	58·57
Muhammadans	16,850	28·81
Others	3,473	5·94
	58,485	

Native States.

Bráhmans	766	3·89
Other Hindus	13,780	69·87
Muhammadans	4,884	24·77
Others	290	1·47
	19,720	

The significance of these figures will be more clearly seen by comparing them with the corresponding statistics for the Departmental cess-schools (see Section B, paragraph 2). The Bráhman children of indigenous schools in British territory numbered 10 per cent. of the Hindu pupils and in Native States only 5 per cent. In the cess-schools, however, they formed 23 per cent. of the Hindu pupils; and if the urban schools were taken separately, the percentage would be still higher. In Poona, for example, it was 61 per cent. Muhammadan children, on the other hand, were relatively more numerous in indigenous schools than in cess-schools, being 28 per cent. of the total number of pupils in the former and only 12 per cent. in the latter institutions. The number of Pársis in indigenous schools is not large and is chiefly confined to schools in which Zend, Pehlvi or Pázend is taught. Children of the Aboriginal and Hill tribes are rarely, if ever, found in indigenous schools. The following statistics have been returned regarding the age of 53,276 of the pupils. So far as the figures go,

* The number of pupils attending 73 aided indigenous schools was 3,548, making the total number of pupils in indigenous schools 82,303.

they prove that children usually begin and cease to attend indigenous schools at earlier ages than they do in the case of cess-schools (*see* the age-return given in paragraph 2 of Section B).

British Districts.						Native States.					
Number below 10 years of age.	Percentage.	Number between 10 and 13 years of age.	Percentage.	Number above 13 years of age.	Percentage.	Number below 10 years of age.	Percentage.	Number between 10 and 13 years of age.	Percentage.	Number above 13 years of age.	Percentage.
27,747	58·51	14,550	30·68	5,125	10·81	3,090	52·79	2,079	35·51	685	11·70

Classes of Indigenous Schools.

3. The classification of these schools according to the race, social status, and age of the pupils gives the following results :—

		No. of Schools in	
		British Territory.	Native States.
	(a)—Classification by race.		
Primary	Hindu schools*	1,871	681
	Muhammadan schools	1,195	142
	Pársi schools	59	6
	Goanese schools	6	...
Higher	Hindu Vedashála and Sanskrit schools	48	...
	Muhammadan Madrasas	6	...
	Pársi Madrasas	4	...
	(b)—Classification by social status.		
Primary	Hindu select schools for sons of the rich	64	8
	Hindu schools open to all but the lowest castes	1,807	673
	Schools for the lowest castes of Hindus	...	..
	Muhammadan schools open to all classes and both sexes	1,125	142
	Pársi schools open to all classes and both sexes	59	...
Higher	Schools for sons of Hindu priests	48	...
	Schools for youths of the Borah caste	6	...
	Schools for sons of Pársi priests	4	...
	(c)—Classification by age.		
Primary	Infant schools for children under 10 years of age	233	84
	Schools for pupils of any age	2,898	739
Higher	Schools for youths or men of any age	58	...

The Hindu primary schools are purely secular institutions. They are established in every part of the Presidency and are more numerous than any other class of indigenous institutions. All other primary indigenous schools, whether for Muhammadans, Párs'is or Goanese, are partly or wholly religious schools; and all higher institutions for Hindus, Muhammadans and Párs'is are also of this character.

Whether the primary schools for Hindus are relics of the old village-system is doubtful. Few, if any of them, can trace back their existence beyond

* Including a few Hindu schools which are supported by missionary societies and which through inadvertence were inseparably incorporated in our returns.

the third generation; while, on the other hand, many of them are known to have been very recently opened. There is, however, ample testimony to show that the Bráhmin Pantoji was once regarded as a man of considerable education and held in high respect. But whether this was owing to the Pantoji of the last century being better educated than Pantojis are now, or to the fact that formerly he had no rivals and was over-rated by the ignorant masses,—very much in the same way as the schoolmaster in the *Deserted Village* was over-rated by his rustic neighbours,—there is no evidence to decide. The probability, however, is that in former times the better-educated Bráhmans were confined to the higher schools in which Sanskrit was taught, and that the Pantoji was always a man of very slight attainments.

The Hindu primary schools for the sons of wealthy parents are usually held in the private houses of rich men, who permit the family-tutor to instruct other children of well-to-do parents along with their own. Many independent schools of the better sort have originated in this way. Hindu schools open to all except the lowest classes are chiefly attended by the sons of tradesmen and artisans. The Bráhmans, as already stated, mostly prefer the cess-schools managed by the Educational Department. For the lowest castes, such as Mahárs, workers in leather, &c., and for children of aboriginal and hill tribes no special indigenous schools exist, nor are such children admitted to the indigenous schools open to the higher classes. It may also be remarked in this connection that there are no special indigenous schools for Hindu girls and that Hindu parents very rarely send their daughters to the boys' schools. The Muhammadan and Pársi primary schools, on the other hand, are freely attended by children of both sexes, though the boys of course are the more numerous. The Honburable Mr. Badrudin Tyabji, moreover, has stated in his evidence before the Commission that "every Muhammadan of the upper classes thinks it his duty to teach his daughters to read the Korán, if nothing more; and that, as a general rule, women amongst the genuine Muhammadans are far more generally and far better educated than the women of other native communities in India." To this testimony we are able to add that out of seven Maktabs or Korán schools established at Ránder in Gujaráth, four are taught by Muhammadan schoolmistresses. These schools are respectively named,—The Mariam Bibi Maktab, the Asha Bibi Maktab, the Amir Bibi Maktab, and the Syedzin Maktab; and they teach the Korán to 76 boys and 32 girls. The infant-schools, which are mostly Hindu, receive children under six years of age; while the cess-schools as a rule do not. The former, therefore, play a very useful part as ancillary institutions. The Goanese schools are wholly unconnected with any European or Missionary agency. They are confined to the Thána district near the Island of Bombay and are remnants of the Portuguese parish-schools described in the first section of this report. But they are now strictly indigenous institutions.

Few of the Hindu institutions of a higher order are attended by more than 10 pupils, who are usually the sons of mendicant Bráhman priests and are fed by the charity of their neighbours. The Veda-schools, which are purely religious institutions, meet in the verandah of the guru's house or in a temple. No fees are charged by the guru; and he considers it a religious duty to teach the Vedas to any Bráhman lads who choose to come to him. In the Sanskrit schools, which are partly secular, the teachers are usually old Shastris, who also take no remuneration for their services. Ten of them, who were found teaching in the Ratnágiri district, were formerly employed in the Poona Sanskrit College and received doles from the Dakshiná fund. The Borah Madrasa at Surat has already been described in the first chapter of this report. About three years ago another Madrasa was opened in the same town by a Maulvi from Rámpur in Upper India. It is attended by nearly 50 pupils, who receive religious and secular instruction in Arabic and Persian. The Maulvi is supported by subscriptions from wealthy people at Surat, Bombay and Baroda, but is reported to be desirous of obtaining State aid. At Ránder in Gujaráth, there are no less than four Madrasas. In one of these, the Ismáil Pipardi Madrasa, there are 92 pupils, 9 of whom are girls. The principal teacher is a Maulvi from Peshawar who gives instruction to the pupils in the Korán and in Arabic grammar. The Háji Sáhib Madrasa is an institution of the same scope, and contains 40 boys and 12 girls. The "Mulla" and "Pynchayat" Madrasas are purely religious schools, the

former being attended by 20 pupils, of whom half are girls, and the latter giving instruction to 75 boys and 9 girls, all of whom are either Borahs or Musalmáns by caste.

The Pársi Madrasas are four in number, three being established at Bombay and one at Surat. All are well endowed.

The Jijibhái Dadábhái Charitable Madrasa at Bombay was founded about 12 years ago, and is attended by about 50 pupils. The Sir J. Jijibhái Zend Madrasa, also at Bombay, and founded by the first Lady Jamsetji in the year 1863, employs five teachers, one of whom is a graduate of the Bombay University. They receive salaries ranging from Rs. 30 to Rs. 175 per mensem. The institution is intended for the professional education of the sons of priests. At present 19 students attend it, 10 of whom are graduates or undergraduates of the Bombay University, who have joined the institution for the study of Zend and Pehlvi. Another important Pársi Madrasa in the City of Bombay is one that was founded about 28 years ago in honour of the learned Dastur Mulla Firoz. It began as a secular institution; but religious instruction has recently been added to the curriculum. Its morning and evening Persian classes are attended by 125 students of the neighbouring colleges and high shools. None of the Pársi Madrasas, which give secular instruction, have ever applied to the Educational Department for grants-in-aid, and financially they would seem to be well able to remain independent of assistance from the State. The Mulla Firoz Madrasa, for example, possesses an endowment fund of Rs. 33,398; and its expenditure on education during the last 28 years amounts to Rs. 61,852-9-2.

Methods and subjects of instruction.

4. The methods of instruction, and the languages and subjects in which the pupils of these several institutions are instructed, will be most conveniently discussed under the following divisions:—

(*a.*) Religious schools.

(*b.*) Partly religious schools.

(*c.*) Secular schools.

Religious schools.

The main object of the Veda schools of the Hindus is to teach young Bráhmans to recite mantras and portions of the Vedas, and thus to fit them in after-life to assist at the various rites and ceremonies of the Hindu household. The instruction given in these schools is limited to the correct recitation of the sacred text. The pupil reads each passage aloud to the guru, who carefully corrects his mistakes, and when the youth has accurately apprehended the words, he commits them to memory. No detailed explanation is given of the subject-matter; and much of what is learnt is not understood by the pupil. The curriculum in the Borah Madrasa at Surat used to be an extensive one; but all study has now virtually ceased in the institution. The teaching of the other Madrasas of this class is chiefly directed to the interpretation of the Kurán, but incidentally the pupils' studies extend to Arabic Grammar. At the Jijibhái Dádábhái Pársi Madrasa the studies of the pupils are confined to the writings of Zoroaster in the original Zend and in the later Pehlvi and Pázend version. The curriculum is of 2 or 2½ years' duration and comprises chiefly the Pársi moral, sacrificial and ceremonial laws (*Yasná* and *Vandidád*); the Pársi liturgy (*Báj* and *Afringán*) and a book of psalms and invocations (*Visperád*). But, just as in the Hindu Vedashálá, the Pársi pupil too often learns much of this literature by rote without understanding it. The method pursued in the Muhammadan mosque-schools is somewhat similar. There are doubtless examples to be found of a Mulla, who is well versed in the Kurán, expounding it to his favourite pupils. But as a general rule the pupils simply learn to read the words of the Kurán and to commit portions of it to memory. In rural districts the school children are to be seen seated before the Mulla on the raised verandah of a mosque, all reading aloud at the same moment from the books in front of them and swaying their bodies to-and-fro as they read. The noise and confusion of this performance does not seem to strike the teacher as objectionable. But this is not perhaps to be wondered at, as he is usually an almost illiterate man, being barely able to read

and wholly unable to write. Some mosques received a Government grant which has been continued to them since the time of the Muhammadan rule, and in them the Kázi is expected to teach the Kurán as part of his official duty. In such cases the teaching is of a somewhat more intelligent type than that just described.

Partly religious schools.

The Hindu Sanskrit schools teach grammar, logic, medicine, and philosophy and are confined to Bráhman pupils. With the exception of those who study medicine, the pupils usually become *Purániks*, and practise as such in the temples or in the houses of rich men. The Muhammadan schools, besides teaching the Arabic Kurán, give elementary instruction in Persian and in Hindustáni or Arabic-Sindhi. The pupils, however, are rarely taught anything except reading, writing, and notation. Arithmetical tables and the four simple rules of arithmetic, which constitute the greater part of the curriculum of the Hindu primary secular schools are almost universally neglected. So also are grammar, geography, and history. Still the central fact that a moral and literary work like the Kurán forms the chief subject of study in every Muhammadan school, should not be overlooked; for there can be little doubt, that if these schools could secure more intelligent teaching they would become the germ of an intellectual revival among the Muhammadan community. The partly religious schools of the Pársis are both of a primary and of an advanced order. The primary schools give a course of secular instruction in Gujaráthi, which is very similar to that prescribed by the departmental standards; and the girls who attend such schools are also taught needle-work and embroidery. Religious instruction from the Kordeh Avesta (a selection of prayers in Zend and Pázend) is given by a separate teacher who is usually a Mobed or priest. In an advanced institution like Sir Jamsetji Jijibhái's Zend Madrasa or the Mulla Firoz's Madrasa the curriculum embraces instruction in the Zend Avesta and in Pehlvi, Sanskrit, Persian, and English. In Pelhvi the pupils read the *Dinkárd* (a work that is partly an exposition of the Zoroastrian religion); *Adárbad's Pandnámá* (a book of moral precepts); the *Ardáiviráf* (an allegory resembling the *Pilgrim's Progress*); *Bundaheshni* (a treatise on cosmogony); and Pehlvi translations of *Vandidád*, *Yásná*, *Visperád*, and *Khordeh Avesta*. The instruction given in Persian, Sanskrit, and English is fully up to the requirements of the University entrance examination; and on the whole this institution may be described as the most flourishing Madrasa in the Presidency.

The Goanese schools give elementary instruction in Goanese and Latin; and the pupils are further instructed in the Christian religion by the Goanese parish priests.

Secular schools.

These institutions, which, as we have shown, are peculiar to the Hindus, are all primary vernacular schools, in which the medium of instruction is Maráthi, Gujaráthi, Banya-Sindhi or Kánarese, according to the province in which the schools are established. The subjects of study vary considerably in different schools. Many schools teach only writing; others only writing and multiplication-tables; but in many towns the larger schools have extended their programme and more or less follow the departmental standards of instruction. A school belonging to the last-mentioned category teaches the native multiplication-tables, mental arithmetic, involving simple accounts, slate-arithmetic up to simple division, reading and writing the script and printed vernacular character, and the geography and history of the province or zilla. A pupil in a school of this description will go through the course somewhat as follows:—For the first two or three months he learns to count from 1 up to 100 and to write the numerals on a sanded board or on the ground. He then begins the native multiplication-tables. These are of two kinds. The integral tables go up to 20×20 and to 10×30 or 40; they also include a table of the squares of all numbers from 1 to 100, and concrete tables of money, weight and capacity. The fractional tables consist of multiples up to 100 times of $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $1\frac{1}{4}$, $1\frac{1}{2}$, $2\frac{1}{2}$, $3\frac{1}{2}$, and $7\frac{1}{2}$. This formidable array of figures takes a boy from two to three years to commit to memory. But during this time he is also learning to read and write the simple and compound letters of the alphabet and easy syllables and words. Such is the first stage of his studies, on completing which, the boy proceeds to

learn the four simple rules of arithmetic and the practical application of the fractional and integral tables to simple problems in mental arithmetic. Much time is also devoted to exercises in handwriting; as a rule the whole morning of each day is spent copy-writing and in learning to read and transcribe proper names and the formal preambles and endings employed in private and commercial correspondence. When a boy has attained some readiness and fluency at these various exercises, he enters upon his third stage, which consists of more advanced exercises in mental arithmetic, writing and reading, with the addition of geography and history. In a few select schools in Gujaráth and the Deccan, the mental arithmetic at this stage is of an extensive character and involves the learning of rules and formulæ for the calculation of practice, interest and discount. The writing-exercises consist chiefly of copying out manuscripts, many of which the pupil laboriously learns by heart, as he spells them out word by word. To some extent the exercise is also a reading-lesson; but the first and second departmental reading-books are chiefly used for this purpose, and in teaching them some attempt is made to impart the first rudiments of vernacular grammar. It is now, too, that the departmental wall-map of the zilla is studied and followed up by oral instruction in the history of the province. A pupil takes at least five years to go through the complete course even under an exceptionally good teacher. But as a matter of fact very few boys ever go through the whole curriculum. It must also be borne in mind that this curriculum is confined to select town-schools, the masters of which have felt the necessity of advancing with the times and of borrowing from a system that has proved attractive in the people's cess-schools. The large majority of Pantojis teach only the multiplication-tables and the reading and writing of the script vernacular character, though they have begun to extensively use the lithographed Modi-reading books that have been published by the Educational Department.

The ordinary daily routine of a Hindu indigenous school is nearly the same in all the parts of the Presidency. Each morning at about 6 o'clock the Pantoji, who is in some cases a Bráhman* and the priest of many of the families whose children attend the school, goes round the village and collects his pupils. This process usually occupies some time. At one house the pupil has to be persuaded to come to school; at another, the parents have some special instructions to give the master regarding the refractoriness of their son; at a third, he is asked to administer chastisement on the spot. As soon as he has collected a sufficient number of his pupils he takes them to the school. For the first half hour a Bhupáli or invocation to the Sun, Saraswati, Ganpati, or some other deity, is chanted by the whole school. After this the boys who can write, trace the letters of their *Kittas* or copy-slips with a dry pen, the object of this exercise being to give free play to the fingers and wrist and to accustom them to the sweep of the letters.

When the tracing-lesson is over the boys begin to write copies; and the youngest children who have been hitherto merely looking on are taken in hand either by the master's son or by one of the elder pupils. The master himself generally confines his attention to one or two of the oldest pupils and to those whose instruction he has stipulated to finish within a given time. All the pupils are seated in one small room or verandah, and the confusion of sounds, which arises from three or four sets of boys reading and shouting out their tables all at the same moment, almost baffles description. One of the Educational Inspectors writes: "Each pupil recites at the top of his voice, and the encouragement to noise is found in the fact that the parents often compute the energy of the master from the volume of sound proceeding from the school. This is no exaggeration. I have myself heard villagers complain that our Government schools lack the swing and energy of the indigenous schools."

* The masters of indigenous schools are distributed by race or caste as follows:—

Bráhmans	903
Orher Hindus	1,005
Muhammadans	328
Pársis	8
Others not returned	1,662
	3,906

The school breaks up about 9 or 10 o'clock, and re-assembles at 2 in the afternoon. The concluding lesson is given at 4 P.M. For this the boys are ranged in two rows facing each other, while two of the older pupils are stationed at one end between the two rows and dictate the multiplication-tables, step by step, for the rest of the boys to shout after them in chorus. When this is over, the school is dismissed and the master personally conducts the younger children to their homes. The school nominally meets every day of the week, Sundays included. But the frequent holidays on account of Hindu feasts and fasts, and the closure of the school twice a month on Amávásyá or new-moon day and Paurnimá or full-moon day, fairly take the place of the weekly and other holidays in English schools. In harvest-time also, many of the rural indigenous schools are entirely closed. It is still the practice in some indigenous schools, though the custom is rapidly dying out, for the pupils on the eve of Amávásyá and Paurnimá to perform the ceremony of Pátipuja or slate-worship. A quarter of an anna, a betel-nut, half a seer of grain, a little saffron and turmeric, and a few flowers, are laid upon the slate of each pupil as offerings to Saraswati, the Goddess of learning. Before these each boy reverently bows down, and then places the slate for a few minutes on his head. The master afterwards appropriates the offerings.

Crowded, noisy and ill-regulated as the school-room is, the majority of these schools fairly accomplish their main object, which is to teach reading, writing and the native multiplication-tables. Our returns show that nearly one-third of the pupils are able to read and write and that about one-sixth know their tables. These statistics, however, are not based on any actual examination of the pupils, but on the opinions of the Pantojis themselves.

It appears to be generally agreed that the punishments inflicted upon the pupils of indigenous schools are less barbarous and severe than they were 20 years ago. There is still, however, considerable room for improvement in this respect.

The effect of the operations of the Educational Department on indigenous schools.

5. We have shown in paragraph 2 of this section that the indigenous primary schools have slowly but steadily increased in numbers since 1842, and that last year they contained about 12,000 more scholars than in 1855. There is also a general improvement observable in their management and method of teaching, which is both directly and indirectly due to the operations of the Educational Department. The departmental cess-schools are admitted by all to have greatly raised the intellectual level of the upper and middle classes; and indirectly this has forced the indigenous schoolmaster to improve his school or yield to a more intelligent rival. But the direct effect of the department's operations has been greater still. The indigenous schools have never flourished in the rural districts; but in the towns they have of late years steadily increased in efficiency, and this result is unanimously attributed by the Educational Inspectors to the stimulating influence of the urban cess-schools, which are extremely well equipped and popular. The Inspector's reports all testify to the fact that the old aversion to printed books and to the teaching of elementary grammar, geography and history is dying out. The information which we have collected from the indigenous schoolmaster's own statements amply confirms this view. Our returns show that 17,000 scholars, in more than one-fourth of the indigenous schools, now use the printed departmental books and that most of the larger institutions profess to teach the elements of vernacular grammar and the geography and history of the zilla or province. But there is another reason for this change that has come over the indigenous schools. In the year 1870 Mr. Peile completely assimilated the standard of instruction in the two lowest classes of the cess-school with the indigenous school-course, the immediate effect of which was to place the indigenous schools in organic relation with the department as ancillary institutions and to assure their stability and popularity. To this stroke of policy the indigenous schoolmaster is now slowly responding by extending his curriculum on the lines of the departmental system of instruction. He is also showing an increasing disposition to avail himself of the special grant-in-aid rules, which Mr. Peile framed for the

indigenous schools in 1870. So long as the Pantoji regarded the neighbouring Government school as a modern rival that he could never hope to equal, it was natural that he should cling all the more closely to his ancestral modes of teaching, which gave his school a distinctive character and appealed to wholly different tastes from those which the Government school satisfied. But now that he has begun to see that the people freely use his school as a preparatory institution to the higher cess-school, and that his position, instead of being threatened by the action of the cess-schools, is strengthened and improved, his desire for isolation is fast disappearing. At the end of the year, 73 of the larger indigenous schools were receiving grants-in-aid; and there can be no doubt from the evidence and other information lately received by the Commission that many more schools are prepared to accept the rules, if slightly modified. As regards the higher indigenous institutions it is generally believed that they have diminished both in numbers and efficiency during the last 50 years. The Sanskrit schools have yielded place to the new order of colleges inaugurated by the University. The Vedic schools and Madrasas, which were almost purely religious institutions, have lost ground from causes which are only remotely due to the operations of the Educational Department. An increasing carelessness in the performance of the complex rites and ceremonies of the Hindu religion is generally admitted on all sides; and by Hindus themselves it is believed to point to a time not very remote, when the services of a priest, well acquainted with the sacred mysteries, will no longer be in any great demand. Already the employments to which the pupils in these schools used to aspire are much fewer and less lucrative than they once were.

Fees and other sources of income.

6. The tuition-fees charged in indigenous schools vary considerably, not only in each district, but in almost every town or village. So far as there is any fixed scale, it appears to range from 6 pies up to Rs. 2 per mensem. But this is exclusive of payments in kind which are often considerable. The average rate paid in a village-school is probably not more than four annas; while in urban schools it is somewhat higher. The master sometimes receives all his emoluments in kind instead of in cash, but more frequently in both forms. Occasionally he occupies a private house rent-free; or his school is accommodated in the village-chavdi or in a temple or mosque. In some villages in lieu of fees he receives a fixed annual income from the villagers, or if a Muhammadan from the mosque-funds. It is also a common practice for the master to agree to instruct a pupil in certain subjects within a given time for a lump payment, which is sometimes as much as Rs. 100. We have already referred to the presents which some masters receive at the time of *Pátipujá* or the slate-ceremony. It is also not uncommon for the master to receive a present in money, clothes, or grain, when a pupil begins to learn his multiplication-tables, and again when he begins the alphabet; and similar presents are made on the occasion of the boy's marriage and thread-ceremonies. In most mosque-schools it is a standing rule that each pupil should pay the master one *pice* and a cake of bread every Thursday, though this rule is often modified so as to enable the master to receive the bread by daily instalments. On the whole it is estimated that the master of a rural school seldom receives more than Rs. 8, and in the smaller villages more than Rs. 5 per mensem in money and kind, and that in urban schools a master receives on the average about twice the latter sum; while in the largest schools his monthly income is in some instances as much as Rs. 50. It should be added that in rural districts the indigenous schoolmaster is very irregularly paid. Not unfrequently he fails to recover his arrears and is compelled to break up his school and remove elsewhere. In the smaller villages of under 700 inhabitants he has never yet succeeded in obtaining a permanent footing; and it is also important to note that he is generally compelled in his own interest to exclude children of the poorer classes who are unable to pay tuition-fees. The rate-supported schools, which admit all classes and instruct from 20 to 45 per cent. of the pupils without charge, are the only schools which have hitherto had the least chance of becoming permanent in such villages. In the higher indigenous institutions no fees are levied. Most of such schools are permanently endowed, and those which are not so supported are maintained by charitable persons who can afford to be independent of tuition-fees.

Recommendations.

7. A consideration of the position which indigenous schools ought to fill in a complete organization of primary education cannot be separated from the whole question of the relations of Government to private enterprise, the duties of municipalities, and the relative advantages of the Bombay cess-schools. The whole subject must be looked at from several points of view and the arguments arranged on each side. This part of the section must therefore be somewhat long, but it will enable us to treat subsequent recommendations with greater conciseness. The first question to be considered is that of the ways and means of primary education and the liabilities with which the several funds available are already charged. The second part of this section will involve a comparison of indigenous and cess-schools. In the third we shall treat of our recommendations.

Ways and means of primary education.

The ways and means of primary education consist mainly of the cess contributions (or rural educational cess as it may be called), municipal grants, both of which are aided by tuition-fees, and the assignment from provincial funds, which we regard as a grant-in-aid to primary education. The liabilities of the cess-income are sufficiently recognized and distinct. District committees are bound by law and equity to expend the local cess for the benefit of the cess-contributions in the district in which it is raised. In considering the whole subject we lay particular stress on this consideration. We are impressed with the conviction that the wishes and interests of the cess-payers must be the leading factor in deciding whether cess-funds should be spent on cess-schools or on indigenous schools. The case of the provincial assignment is more difficult. We regard the provincial assignment in the spirit in which it was viewed in the Government of India Resolution No. 60, Home Department, dated February 11th, 1871, namely, as a grant-in-aid of local resources raised for elementary education. We therefore lay down the principle that cess-funds are entitled to their full share of this provision in proportion to the cess-income, and that municipalities or towns cannot justly claim a larger share than is proportioned to the municipal expenditure on primary schools, which consists of a small portion of cess-income raised in the town and of a municipal grant or voluntary contributions with the addition of the school-fees. If this principle is affirmed, very important results will follow. We shall show presently (page 102) that in 1881-82, 156 municipalities received a grant from provincial revenues of Rs. 2,17,272 in aid of their own resources which were Rs. 1,34,580. On the other hand, the rural cess-schools received but Rs. 29,418 in aid of their cess-income of Rs. 7,08,327. This inequality of distribution, which bears no proportion to local sacrifices and resources, cannot in our opinion be justified. We advocate the entire separation both in finance and in administration of rural and urban primary education. This separation seems a necessary corollary to the measures which his Excellency the Governor of Bombay in Council has taken in connection with the local self-government scheme. When the severance of administration has been completed, the provincial assignment should bear a strict proportion to municipal or rural expenditure on primary education. The further question, however, arises whether the introduction of the new policy should not coincide with a re-adjustment of the existing grant. Such a re-adjustment would reduce the ways and means that are now applied to urban primary instruction and *pro tanto* increase those available for rural elementary schools, which could be spent either in aiding indigenous schools or extending cess-schools. Arguments are not wanting against a change of this sort. Two of these arguments must be stated. The first is that the introduction of self-government and the transfer of the control of primary education in towns to town-committees is an experiment. It may not be politic, even under cover of redressing an anomaly, to transfer to town-boards a charge without the corresponding income which has hitherto met that charge. The association of responsibilities with increased liabilities on the threshold of a great political experiment may prejudice the popularity and success of that experiment. The second argument for leaving to the municipalities the funds which are now assigned to urban-schools is, that experience has shown the elasticity of urban expenditure on primary education. It is in the towns that the elementary cess-schools are crowded with hundreds of scholars, and the

Funds for primary education are unfairly distributed.

largest indigenous or private schools are calling out for help. If the State is so liberal as to start the new experiment with ample means, it can fairly lay down the principle that the inevitable extension of primary education in the cities and towns must be met from municipal or local resources, until in the course of years the inequality of which we complain has reduced itself. According to this view the expenditure will inevitably increase, whilst the provincial assignment will remain stationary, and the increasing cost will be met by increased local resources. We recognise the force of these arguments. We appreciate the inconvenience of reducing a grant just when the corresponding expenditure is transferred to municipal committees, and we believe that the inequality will disappear in the course of the next decade in the larger towns. In the smaller towns, however, we fear that the committees will only spend up to the income now transferred without making greater sacrifices or increasing their local contributions. On the other hand, the witnesses who have been cross-examined by us (Mr. Sorabji Shapurji Bengali, C.I.E., in answer to Mr. Lee-Warner's first question, page 8, and the Honourable Mr. Badrudin Tyabji and other witnesses) who represent in a special sense municipal feeling, honourably admit the injustice and disparity of the present assignment. Public gratitude is usually not long-lived. In a year or two the concession now granted will be forgotten, and the necessary sacrifices, which ought to be made by municipalities to provide for urban primary education, are more likely to be made at the outset whilst public sentiment is stirred to a sense of its new dignity and responsibilities than later on. As soon as the charges of instruction increase, fresh demands will be made on the State, and their refusal will put out of mind the liberality of Government in starting municipal committees with excessive grants at the expense of rural committees. The matter must also be viewed from the stand-point of the district committees, and exclusive consideration must not be paid to urban committees. The district or taluka committees are already sensible of the injustice done to them, and demand the re-adjustment of the provincial assignment which they have long awaited with impatience. We have shown that for the past 12 years the levy of a non-agricultural cess or a municipal education-rate has been discussed, and the rural committees regard the present opportunity as favourable for a settlement of their own claims. Between these conflicting claims the opinion at which we arrive is as follows. If it is considered impossible for Government to increase their assignment for primary education, we hold that the inequality of distribution should at once be rectified. The fund available for rural primary education must henceforth be entirely separated from the ways and means of urban education. The cess income, which will continue to form the main local resources of the former, must be supplemented by a proportionate share of the provincial assignment: and the municipal grant, together with the portion of cess funds paid by the residents in towns and other local contributions, can only claim to receive its proportion of the provincial assignment. But we strongly press on Government the need for a larger assignment of public revenues in aid of local expenditure on primary education. This might in part be provided by an imperial grant which we are unanimously of opinion should be annually made to each local government or administration. In part also it might be provided by an addition from provincial revenues. How inadequate the present grant is will appear at a glance. Excluding the cost of colleges for training masters from which both town and village schools benefit, and the shares of the cost of inspection and direction, the total cost of maintaining the departmental schools and school-houses for primary education in the British districts of Bombay for 1881-82 was Rs. 10,89,597, of which the provincial assignment was only Rs. 2,46,690. In other words local resources, which were Rs. 8,42,907, were aided by a grant of 23 per cent. by the State. But the disparity of the assignment of this contribution of 23 per cent. to towns and villages respectively will appear from these figures. 156 municipal towns provided Rs. 1,34,580 for primary education in the shape of fees, cess contributions, and municipal grants. They received from the State Rs. 2,17,272, being 88 per cent. of the total State grant-in-aid to primary schools for boys and 161 per cent. of urban resources. The rural districts provided Rs.7,08,327 for primary education in the shape of local resources, and received from the State only Rs. 29,418, or less than 12 per cent. of the whole State assignment, being a grant-in-aid of local effort of 4 per cent.

We have rgarded the provincial assignment as specially assigned in the proportions given above to town and city schools, because the Government of

Bombay have lately viewed the matter in that aspect. It is of course open to the department to argue that the cess income and the assignment form one single fund, and that it is not fair to regard any particular expenditure as made from cess funds or the provincial assignment separately. But this view of the case will only strengthen our argument. If the great deficiency between the urban resources and the urban expenditure is regarded as supplied direct from cess funds, then the expenditure of the contributions of village cess-payers in towns, where those contributors do not reside, only accentuates the complaint of unfairness, and almost deserves the charge of an illegal appropriation of cess money. Therefore we have preferred to take the view, which is quite arbitrary, but more favourable to the department, that the provincial assignment is a sum voted by Government for primary education, which according to the discretion of the Education Department is spent in towns or villages according to the wants of either. We have shown that of the assignment 156 municipalities receive more than 88 per cent. and the rural schools less than 12 per cent. We have further shown that this distribution bears no proportion whatever to local resources. The towns are aided by a grant-in-aid of 161 per cent. of their own resources, and the rural schools by a grant-in-aid of only 4 per cent. Our charge of unfairness and our claim for a re-adjustment depends, then, upon the question whether the provincial assignment is really a grant-in-aid or merely a free grant from Government to primary education unfettered by any liabilities or charges whatsoever. We are unanimously of opinion that it was intended as a grant-in-aid and considered as such until a recent date. The proceedings of the Government of India in the Home Department, No. 60, dated February 11th, 1871, leave on our minds no doubt of the intention of Government. We extract these sentences:—"The fact is that primary education must be supported both by imperial funds and by local rates." "This does not lessen the obligation of Government to contribute as liberally as other demands allow, to supplement the sums raised by local effort. The true policy will be to distribute the imperial funds so far as such funds are available in proportion to the amount raised by the people from each district." It is permissible to assign from the provincial grant funds in aid of schools mainly supported by contributions from local cesses or municipal rates. A rule, however, should be laid down that the State contribution is not to exceed one-half of the aggregate contributions from all other sources or one-third of the total expenditure on education in the school concerned." How far this rule is observed, if the provincial assignment is considered to be assigned specially to urban schools in the proportion which we have shown needs no further comment. Paragraph 6 of the Government of India's remarks is even more explicit. A special exception to the general rule is admitted in poor and backward districts "where the population is large, and the rate, owing to the poverty of the people, insufficient to give the required quota." This exception cannot apply to the municipalities which we have noticed. Their annual income in 1880-81, exclusive of opening balances, which amounted to Rs. 17,09,678, was Rs. 59,78,201, and there can be no doubt that the inhabitants are as a rule better able to contribute an educational cess than the peasant proprietary of rural Bombay.

Rural funds, as well as urban, have a claim on the provincial grant.

We are therefore of opinion that the ways and means of urban and rural primary education must be kept distinct, and the town contributions must not receive a larger proportion of the grant-in-aid than the cess funds. If Government are not prepared to raise their grant or if the Government of India are not prepared to make a special assignment for primary education, we advocate a re-adjustment of the aid now given and a consequent increase of the funds available for primary education in rural districts. The deficit in the towns must be made good by municipal taxation. It is not a case of robbing the urban school to pay for the rural school, but of restoring to the latter what belongs to it in justice and equity. If, however, the grant can be increased, the increase should go to the village schools and the towns might then be allowed to retain the funds that are now applied to urban primary education, leaving it to the course of time and the natural development of town schools to effect a gradual re-adjustment. According to this view of the case the

Urban indigenous schools must be a charge on the urban fund.

towns will either lose a part of their present grant, or else retain it, if the rural fund is supplemented by a more liberal provincial grant. But henceforth the towns will never be able to put their hands into the cess-payers' pockets, as they have hitherto done. The best indigenous schools are in the towns, and the town-fund * must help them, if they are to be helped. The cess fund will only be available to help rural indigenous schools, and a consideration of the claims of indigenous schools involves at the outset separation of urban indigenous schools from such institutions in the villages.

Comparison of indigenous and cess-schools.

A comparison between the value of education in the Bombay cess schools and in the indigenous schools is the next step towards answering the question, whether the additional funds, which will either be granted or set free for extending primary education, should be expended in opening new cess schools, or in aiding and creating indigenous schools. The arguments on each side of the question are set forth below—

Government Cess Schools.	Indigenous Schools.
1. The cess school gives the cheapest education to the contributors. The fee to a cess-payer varies from ½ to 2 annas according to the class of instruction, and to a non-cess-payer from 2 to an average of 6 annas rising in rare cases to 1 rupee. The average cost to cess-funds is only 6 annas per head per mensem, and yet 20 to 40 per cent. of the poorer boys are taught gratuitously.	1. The fee in indigenous schools varies from an average of 4 annas to Rs. 2 a month. Where the fee is less than 4 annas it is supplemented by presents to the master. Very few, if any, pupils are exempted from the payment of fees. Education is therefore more expensive to all, and the cost is prohibitive to the poor and dull boys who in a cess school would be taught free.
2. Not only are no classes of the rural community excluded from cess schools, but the Muhammadans have taken special advantage of them. There are 2,862 Mahárs and low-caste boys and 2,176 Aborigines now in Government schools.	2. No indigenous school dare receive a low-caste boy: yet the Mahárs and Rámoshis own land in every village and pay the cess. Indigenous schools are unknown in the wild forest tracts, and in Berár, where liberal grants are offered, none have been established for the Aborigines. The secular education of Muhammaduns was almost entirely neglected in Gujaráth and elsewhere until cess schools were opened.
3. The cess school is a permanent institution. If the master falls ill or dies, he is replaced. The demand for education once aroused and supplied in any village will always be supplied.	3. The indigenous school-master except in towns is a bird of passage. Directly famine or accident temporarily affects the attendance he moves off. His illness or death also closes the school.
4. The average attendance in a cess school is 64, which is both a cause and result of its superior efficiency. The facilities of inspection and examination are in proportion to the concentration of pupils, and it is easier for the masters in a large school to divide their teaching power according to the wants and capacities of the various children. The boys are taught regularly and the stupid children not neglected.	4. The average attendance in the indigenous schools throughout the Presidency is 20, and in rural villages it cannot exceed 10. It is a well-known fact that the clever or richer boys are taught to the neglect of the stupid children. Yet, notwithstanding this concentration of attention we cannot find that a single boy has ever passed the public service examination from an indigenous school.
5. The returns of attendance, and the efficiency of teaching in the cess school are subjected to every possible test and can be relied on.	5. Experience has suggested grave doubts whether reliance can be placed upon the returns of attendance sent in by indigenous masters.
6. The popularity of the cess schools is such that constant applications are received for opening them in villages which have to be refused.	6. In towns some indigenous schools are popular, but in the districts we have only heard of one which could hold its own against the cess school. Villagers often are so dissatisfied with the indigenous school that they apply for a Government school to supersede it.

* Whether the town or rural fund can claim an additional grant for assisting indigenous schools will depend, 1st, on the provision assigned to it by Government, 2nd, on the view which is taken of the character of the contract on withdrawal, which is discussed in Section L. In our opinion a separate and carefully considered financial arrangement must be specially made with each municipality at the time of transfer.

Government Cess Schools.	Indigenous Schools.
7. The masters of cess schools are trained or else men of whose capacity to teach practical proof has been given.	7. Some of the masters of indigenous schools are clever men dismissed from the department or unable to find employment in it. But the ordinary village-master is described by the witnesses before the Commission as grossly ignorant.
8. It is not true that the course of study in the cess school is to oambitious and too unpractical. Mr. Apte, the great advocate of indigenous schools, admits at page 29 of hisevidence, that not a single practical subject is taught in an indigenous school which is not taught in a cess school. The cess school has in fact adopted many changes of curriculum to suit the popular demand. The fact that in towns the cess schools are filled with the sons of the most influential citizens proves the value put on them. In villages they are well-filled and an average of 64 boys to a school could not be maintained if the instruction were not useful and valued.	8. On the other hand, the indigenous school is specially favourable for the contract system or for a special want. The shop-keeper who wants a special system of accounts taught to his son, the parent who wants his son crammed in a fixed time for a special test, the father of a troublesome boy who despises the mild discipline of the Government schoolmaster but has a wholesome dread of the rod of "plagosi Orbilii," all find the indigenous schoolmaster ready to adapt his system to their special wants. Lastly the cess schools in towns are overfilled, and there is no money to open a village cess school. The State system has created a demand which it cannot satisfy and the indigenous schoolmaster profits by it.
9. In the great majority of instances the Government school-house is entirely satisfactory in a sanitary point of view.	9. The school-room is almost always ill-ventilated and in the hot season injurious to the health of the pupils.
10. The extension of cess schools is a mere matter of funds. The organisation exists and masters are ready for employ. They also stand the strain of famine or other agricultural disaster.	10. Indigenous schools have grown with the growth of education. Yet even now in British districts with their 24,598 towns and villages there are only 3,954 such schools. A famine at once closes all except the town schools.

The above comparison and the testimony of nearly every witness establish the fact that the cess schools are more popular and efficient than indigenous schools. Yet there may be two arguments in favour of the latter—their greater cheapness to the State, and the advantage of encouraging private enterprise. We shall presently examine these points, but here we wish to state that we can find no evidence to prove that education in the indigenous school is more practical and more useful than it is in a Government school. The Government schools have the disadvantage of the fetters of a system which must meet all wants, but they appear to have marched abreast of the wants of the time. In some respects they have even borrowed from the indigenous schools without advantage. The Government school is opposed to the contract-system, and looking to the various classes which attend it, it cannot be expected to meet special wants. But that it meets fairly well the general wants of society and does not educate over the heads of rural society is, we think, proved by the increase of 93 per cent. in the attendance at primary schools since 1871, at an increasing cost of 18 per cent., and by the universal demand for increasing the number of cess schools.

The indigenous school will never give a cheaper education to the cess-payer than the cess school, but it may cost cess funds less than the cess school, and therefore enable cess funds to go further in extending education. We proceed to lay before the Commission some facts which will enable an opinion to be formed on this matter. It is only necessary to remember that the department are practically trustees administering through local committees the local cess, and they are bound to consider the claims of the contributors to receive the most efficient education at the least cost. We have no reason to believe that for many years to come indigenous schools could reach the standard of efficiency and

The question of economy discussed.

cheapness which after 15 years' steady perseverance the department has ensured. But, assuming for argument that no risk of impaired efficiency were incurred by trusting to indigenous agency, the question narrows itself into this—whether the indigenous agency is so much cheaper to cess-funds that a far greater extension of primary education would be practicable under it, and thus enable more cess-contributors to participate in the expenditure without much addition to the cost *to them* of educating their children. The present grants-in-aid have been condemned by many witnesses as too illiberal. We therefore take them because they will represent the least possible assistance which the State must render. We find that a Government primary school with an average attendance in this year of 121 pupils cost the department Rs. 449 after deducting the fees for tuition. In its last examination these results were obtained:—

Number presented	Standard.	No. passed in 1st Head.	No. passed in 2nd Head.	No. passed in 3rd Head.	No. passed in 4th Head.
9	IV	9	5	7	6
40	III	32	25	31	27
40	II	35	31	32	36
30	I	26	30	30	26

Such results would have earned under the existing rules Rs. 281-8-0, and if the grants were increased to the scale recommended, Rs. 376. In other words, the cess income would save either Rs. 167-8-0 or Rs. 73, as the case might be, which would be available for assisting an indigenous school in another village, and thus enabling other cess-payers to derive a direct benefit from the cess. But looking at the matter from the cess-payers' point of view, it may be doubted if the disadvantages would not outweigh the advantage. Those who now benefit by the cess school would lose the advantages they possess of low fees, the percentage of free-studentships, and the guarantee of permanent and continued efficiency, in order that their loss of these advantages might save a fraction of the cost of aiding another school in another village. The cess funds would thus cover a wider area, but the general efficiency of instruction would be impaired, and education would cost more to the cess-payers, since fees would be raised.

The advantage of encouraging private enterprise.

The question has yet to be viewed from the point of the encouragement which would be given to private enterprise. Indigenous schools, if liberally aided, would doubtless improve, and perhaps in the towns would lower their fees. But it has taken many years of uninterrupted effort to bring the scheme of elementary instruction in the cess schools to its present efficiency, and as the machinery for extending it through indigenous schools does not yet exist, progress would be arrested in the necessity for creating it. There is no analogy between the case of Bengal, if we understand the position of affairs there, and Bombay. There is no vast organisation here of indigenous schools waiting to be brought under the influence of the department. In the whole area of the Presidency proper with its 24,598 villages there are but 3,189 such schools, most of which are in towns. There is a not single indigenous school for the aboriginal population, and not one which can or dare admit a low-caste boy. The best schools are already aided, the rest are either urban or rural schools. If urban, they only do not receive aid because the present inequality of expenditure would be aggravated by greater expenditure in the towns, and because they can support themselves. If they are rural, they are not helped because they are worthless, ephemeral, and even unpopular, being mere make-shifts till the cess-payers can claim a school of their own. Private enterprise must justify its title to a share in the cess payers' contributions. It is not proved to our satisfaction that indigenous village-schools would re-pay attention. The experience gained in Berar where the system has been tried hardly favours the attempt. Still,

there is a wide difference between adopting a system exclusively and adopting it as an alternative and as an experiment. If private enterprise can provide the cess-payers with a good and reasonably cheap education than the cess school, it should certainly be encouraged. We are not sure that the experiment has yet received a fair trial, and though the Bombay cess-payers would never be content with the inferior schools which seem to satisfy the Bengal rayat, it has not yet been proved that the Bombay indigenous or private schools could not be raised in time to the level of the cess schools.

How indigenous schools can be encouraged in towns.

Whilst therefore we are of opinion that not a single cess school should be closed and that any increase of ways and means should be devoted partly to an increase of cess schools, we should also like to see the indigenous school encouraged and assisted. In considering the ways and means of primary education we have proposed a distinct severance of the fund for town schools from the fund for village schools. The town fund will be administered by municipal committees, and they should be required to assign a proportion of their fund for grants-in-aid to indigenous schools on the payment-by-results system, except in the case of Muhammadan and female schools, to which we should apply another system. The special rules for indigenous schools might be made more liberal by raising the minimum from Rs. 10 to 20 and the maximum to Rs. 60. An average attendance of 15 boys should be insisted on. The aid given by results might be raised by 20 per cent., the submission of a monthly abstract of attendance discontinued, and in its place one annual return of the attendance on March 31st required. The system of recording the daily attendance should be encouraged by a special grant of 1 rupee per mensem for keeping it. The condition prescribed that our text-books and method should be introduced should be cancelled. Experience shows that if the system be good it will gradually be adopted. No school should be declared ineligible because it taught religion. We would even admit reading a passage of the Koran, the Granth or the Bible, as a test for reading, provided the passages were carefully selected so that a bare explanation of reading would not involve any exposition of religious doctrine. All examinations should be conducted *in situ*, and if the present staff of inspectors proved inadequate we should recommend the appointment of an indigenous schoolmaster as Assistant Deputy Inspector. If the schools increased, prizes should be given annually at a convenient centre to the successful boys.

How indigenous schools may be encouraged in villages.

For village schools the special rules above alluded to would not afford sufficient encouragement, and for many years to come the aid by results would hardly be applicable. We should therefore suggest that certificated masters be sent out with a guaranteed salary of Rs. 5 per mensem on condition that they secured an attendance of 15 boys, and continued to maintain their schools in efficiency. It has been pointed out as an objection to this system that the masters would exclude low caste boys and charge high fees, and that any attempt to guard against this would involve such an interference as would ruin the success of the scheme. We should lay it down as a rule that as the pay of the master was supplied from cess funds all cess payers' children should be admitted, but we would make no rules about the fees. For Muhammadan schools and girls' schools in towns we would adopt the same system, because the supply of such children who will attend school even in towns is so small that the system of payment-by-results would practically be inapplicable.

As the rural fund is also administered by local committees in the same way as the urban fund is managed by municipalities, it would be necessary to make it compulsory on these committees to render assistance under the rules proposed. In course of time it might also be necessary to prescribe what proportion of the whole fund should be expended on indigenous or private schools, but at first it would be better to leave each committee full discretion in the matter, merely prescribing the rules under which aid can be claimed without defining any limit to the assignment which would be required. Local and town boards would then be free to develop whatever system they preferred, subject only to the recognition of the rights of indigenous schools. In the towns the results system would prevent any excessive demand on the municipality, whilst the

number of girl's schools or Muhammadan schools aided on the system of paying the master's salary would not be large. In the rural districts the masters who would receive Rs. 5 a month would require certificates from the Educational Inspector, whilst the condition of teaching 15 boys would be another safeguard against any inordinate and sudden demand being made on the cess funds. If the system extended with satisfactory results, the least efficient cess schools could be closed to make way for the indigenous school. Any indigenous schoolmaster could at any time claim to come under the results system and give up his salary.

Legislation necessary.

Such are the measures which we should recommend for assisting and encouraging indigenous schools. In the towns these schools could easily be made efficient, and, as their assistance would depend on results, the municipal fund would not be liable to charges for indifferent schools. In rural districts the requirement of a certificate would be a guarantee that the master could teach; and if the master was not a certificated teacher he could register his school for aid under the special rules or under the results system. It has been suggested that the ways and means for, and the administration of, grants-in-aid should remain with the department, although cess schools are handed over to municipal and local boards. The grounds for this suggestion are the fear that these boards will crush out private enterprise, and according to the religious views which preponderate on the board exclude from assistance private or indigenous schools which teach religion. But there are two objections to such a course. In the first place, the indigenous and private schools in towns will always be the most numerous and efficient. Their assistance would absorb a larger share of the Government grant than the town-fund is entitled to. The indigenous agency is doing the work of the municipal board and should be paid for by an assignment from the board's revenues. Another objection is that the transfer of primary education to the management of local boards would be incomplete. It seems to imply a want of faith in self-government to hand over to these boards cess schools, and not also transfer to them the administration of all other institutions which are carrying on concurrently the work of primary education. We recognise the necessity for legislation to protect and secure legal rights to private enterprise, but subject to this safeguard we would leave the control of all branches of primary education to municipal and local boards, subject to such conditions as will be noticed in Sections J and K.

SECTION B.—*Primary Instruction recognised by the Department.*

Its definition.

1. It is impossible to lay down a precise definition of primary instruction, which shall be equally applicable to every province of India. It will, however, have been observed in a previous chapter of this report that the requisites for elementary education in Bombay comprehend something more than the three Rs. which seem to be considered even more than sufficient in the eastern parts of the empire. Unless society is intended to be stationary, it must be mischievous to regard any precise curriculum as necessarily too liberal* and advanced for a rural community. Equally mischievous would it be, in our opinion, to ignore the diversities of society included in the geographical expression India. We have no means of judging whether there are reasonable grounds for the fears which are expressed in an official report from Bengal, that one of the effects of giving the rayats an education (which in Bombay would not rise to the level of a good primary education) is to make them less docile and submissive to authority, and generally discontented with their trades. In Bombay where the highest standard of primary education includes Euclid Book I., short universal history as well as history of India, and elements of physical geography, no such fear has been expressed or felt. The peasant desires instruction and education in its larger sense, that he may be the better agriculturist, understand and meet the village money-lender on equal terms, write his own petitions to the collector, and generally be able to manage his own business better. There may be a few ambitious peasant boys, whose minds are unsettled by success in the village-schools and to some extent unfitted for the sphere in which their parents wish them to remain. But such instances are no subject for regret, unless it is to be assumed that by an irrevocable decree of fate every rayat is destined to remain a rayat for ever. There are a few Marátha clerks in every district who have obtained a respectable position in Government service with no better foundation than the primary instruction which the department affords. Any attempt, however, to lay down a hard-and-fast rule for fixing the limit of primary education must be futile in an empire composed of such different nationalities, religions, and societies as India. Even across the British Channel the wide range of subjects taught in French primary schools affords a remarkable contrast to national education in England. Under the new education law of France all children between the ages of 6 and 13 are required, besides reading and writing, to receive moral and civil instruction, to be taught geography and history, some notions of law and political economy, the elements of natural, physical, and mathematical science, their application to agriculture, health, and industry, and the elements of drawing, modelling, and music, with gymnastic exercises. If the primary course represented in the French list is far in advance of the definition of primary instruction in England, whose history and civilisation has borrowed so much from the neighbouring country, it can hardly appear reasonable to draw a hard-and-fast line between primary and secondary instruction which shall apply to societies so radically different in history, religion and administration, as Madras and the Punjab or Bombay and Bengal. In Bombay it is opposed to the policy of the department to regard primary and secondary education as mere steps in a ladder which leads up to the University. Rather has it been the object of the department to bring the village schools within the sphere of a thorough primary education, suitable to the present wants of the rural population and capable of extension when rural society demands it. Primary education in Bombay is therefore not defined as merely a fraction of the complete scheme of instruction which terminates in the University, arbitrarily fixed without reference to the condition of the masses; but rather as that instruction which in the present condition of rural society in Bombay will enable the masses to discharge their duties to society and the State, and fit them to hold an intelligent position in the ranks of the class to which they belong. The definition does not look down upon primary education from the pedestal of the University, but looks round on the actual social and intellectual condition of the villagers and their effective demands for instruction, and thus comprises within

* The Khán Bahádur Kazi Shahabudin of Baroda even now regards the curriculum of our primary course as insufficient for the Province of Gujaráth. (See his evidence.)

its sphere all those subjects of instruction which will meet or stimulate the village demand.

Its extent.

2. The total number of primary boys' schools comprised within the departmental system of instruction on the 31st of March last was 5,012; and they were attended by 312,771 children. The following table will show how these schools were distributed and what numerical progress has been made since the year 1870:—

	BRITISH TERRITORY.									NATIVE STATES.		
	* Urban Districts.			Rural Districts.			Total.			Urban and Rural Districts.		
	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars.	Average Number of Scholars in each School.	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars.	Average Number of Scholars in each School.	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars.	Average Number of Scholars in each School.	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars.	Average Number of Scholars in each School.
1870-71	324	38,786	119	1,845	86,728	47	2,169	125,514	57	351	20,241	57
1881-82	540	75,469	139	3,242	167,234	51	3,782	242,703	64	1,230	70,068	57 nearly
Increase per cent. since 1870-71 .	66·66	94·57	16·80	75·71	92·89	8·51	74·36	93·36	12·24	250·42	246·16	...

* These comprise townships of 5,000 inhabitants and upwards.

The area of the Presidency† being 191,346 square miles, it follows that in 1881-82 there was one school to every 38·17 square miles. In British territory (124,122 square miles) the proportion was one school to every 32·82 square miles and in Native States (67,224 square miles) it was as 1 to 54·65. But this comparison is in reality quite deceptive, as large tracts of the Presidency are either without population, or are very sparsely inhabited. The cultivable or occupied area of the British districts, excluding Sind is 40,515 square miles, or rather less than one-third of the total area. Taking this as being the area on which the population were concentrated, we find that there was in March last one school to every 11·48 square miles, or in other words that the average maximum distance of each school from the surrounding population was roughly about three miles. The total number of inhabited towns and villages on this area of 40,515 square miles is 21,554, and the average distance from one village site to another is rather more than two miles. It follows therefore that there was one school to every six villages, and that the average distance from school to school was 3·64 miles, and the average radius of the circle of which each school was the centre was 1·91 miles.

	Square Miles.
Omitting Janjira . .	325
Daphlapur , .	95
Khairpur . .	6,109
	6,529

† in which territory the Educational Department has no jurisdiction, and Baroda, which is excluded from our review.

The proportion of these schools and scholars to the male population, and to the male population of school-going age, is shown in the following table:—

In British Territory, including Sind.		In Native States.
1 school to every . 2,247 2·85 scholars to every . 100	Of the total male population	1 school to every . 2,813 2·02 scholars to every . 100
1 school to every . 337 19·03 scholars to every 100	Of the total male population of school-going age	1 school to every . 421 13·49 scholars to every 100

The actual progress of education in the Presidency proper is somewhat obscured in the above table by the inclusion of Sind, which, as we have shown, is an exceptionally isolated and backward province. It should be noted therefore that in British territory, exclusive of Sind, the number of children at school was 21 per cent., or more than one in five of the male population of school-going age; and that inclusive of the children attending the local indigenous schools

enumerated in Section A it was 25·64 per cent., or more than $\frac{1}{4}$th of the population of a fit age to attend school, and 3·34 per cent. of the total male population. This represents as great a numerical advance as was made in England three years before the introduction of the compulsory Education Act in the year 1870. And even in that year the total number of boys above six years of age, who were attending the inspected elementary schools was little more than 5 per cent. of the total male population.

The extent of which the various races or castes of the population have attended the schools connected with the Educational Department will be seen from the comparative table that follows:—

	No. at School in 1880-81.	Per cent.	No. at School in 1881-82.	Per cent.
Christians	1,300	·48	1,521	·49
Bráhmins	58,175	21·37	63,071	20·17
Other Hindus	174,072	63·94	202,345	64·69
Muhammadans	33,033	12·13	39,231	12·54
Pársis	3,109	1·14	3,517	1·12
Aboriginal and Hill Tribes	2,135	·78	2,713	·87
Jews and others	443	·16	373	·12
TOTAL	272,267	...	312,771	...

The percentage of the Hindu children at school to the total Hindu male population was 2·55 in 1880-81 and 2·84 in 1881-82. The corresponding percentages for the Muhammadan children were 1·70 and 2·02 respectively.

In 1880-81 the number of Bráhman children at the primary schools was 7,600 greater than in the year 1879-80. In 1881-82 their number showed a further increase of 4,800, or 8·59 per cent. The attendance of children of other Hindu castes and of the Muhammadans has also been steadily increasing during the last three years; and it is especially satisfactory to note the improvement that has taken place in the attendance of children belonging to the agricultural class. The school returns for the last three years give the following statistics regarding the number of agriculturists' children under instruction in the cess schools:—

YEARS.	Children of Classes wholly or partly engaged in Agriculture.	Increase.	Increase per cent.
1879-80	96,775	15,205	18·34
1880-81	115,689	18,914	19·54
1881-82	131,405	15,716	13·58
Total increase in 3 years		49,835	61·09

The total number of pupils belonging to the lowest Hindu castes, such as Mahárs, Mochis, &c., was 3,512, and we find that their number has increased sixfold since the year 1871-72. A satisfactory advance in this respect is also apparent among the Aboriginal and Hill tribes, the number of their children at school in 1881-82 being 2,713, or more than 400 per cent. more than in 1871-72. In other words, 3·07 per cent. of their male children of school-going age are now attending school.

The increasing desire for education among all these depressed and almost wholly illiterate classes is a striking proof of the catholic character of the primary schools managed or inspected by the department. Preferred as they are by the highest, as well as by the lowest, classes of the community, the cess schools have discharged a function which the indigenous schools have never aimed at, and which probably they never could perform, as they are at present constituted.

We subjoin a table showing to what extent the lowest castes or tribes have been attracted to the cess schools and to the other institutions associated with the departmental system during the last 10 years.

	Low castes such as Mahars, Mochis, &c.			Aboriginal and Hill Tribes.		
	Number in 1871-72.	Number in 1881-82.	Increase per cent.	Number in 1871-72.	Number in 1881-82.	Increase per cent.
Cess schools	558	2,862	412	997	2,176	118
Aided schools	34	221	1,812	18	...	2,883
Native State schools		429			537	
Total	592	3,512	492	1,015	2,713	405

A complete analysis of the extent of primary education should of course show the average age at which a pupil leaves school, and what differences annually appear in this respect between one district of the Presidency and another, and between the several castes or races of the population. We are not able, however, to give any comparative statistics of this nature, as the school returns of past years do not contain any age data. But we have ascertained that of 230,540 children attending the cess schools, 46 per cent. are under 10 years of age, 34 per cent. are between 10 and 13, and 19 per cent. are above the age of 13. The following table shows the details on which these averages have been calculated:—

Districts.	Total Number of Children whose age has been returned.	Number of Pupils under 10 Years of Age.	Percentage.	Number of Pupils between 10 and 13 Years of Age.	Percentage.	Number of Pupils above 13 Years of Age.	Percentage.
Central Division	59,844	27,554	46·04	21,774	36·39	10,516	17·57
North-East Division	43,791	20,917	47·76	14,305	32·67	8,569	19·57
Northern Division	60,779	28,244	46·47	21,860	35·97	10,675	17·56
Southern Division	52,205	22 279	42·68	17,593	33·70	12,333	23·62
Sindh	13,921	7,807	56·08	3,861	27·74	2,253	16·18
Total	230,540	106,801	46·33	79,393	34·44	44,346	19·23

Government Aided and Unaided Schools.

3. The distribution of primary schools under these heads is given in the table which follows:—

Class of Institutions.	Number of Institutions.	Number of Scholars on the rolls on March 31st 1882.	Average Number on the Rolls monthly during the year 1881-82.	Average Daily Attendance in 1881-82.
British Territories.				
Government Schools (comprising Cess, Jail, Police and Aden Schools)	3,630	232,663	220,615	164,168
Aided Schools	146	9,564	9,179	7,297
Unaided Schools under Inspection*	6	476	391	238
Native States.				
Inspecting Schools	1,230	70,068	67,503	51,613
Total	5,012	312,771	297,688	223,316

* Our returns show 57 missionary schools which in 1881-82 were neither aided nor inspected. The managers have since registered 51 of these institutions for grants-in-aid.

These figures when compared with the corresponding return for 1880-81 show an increase of 307 schools and 37,129 scholars. The increase was thus distributed—

	Increase.		Increase.	
	In number of Scholars.	Per cent.	In number of Scholars.	Per cent.
Government	209	6·11	27,649	13·49
Aided	15	11·45	1,137	13·49
Unaided schools under inspection	3	100·	347	268·99
Native State schools	80	6·95	7,996	12·88
Total	307	6·52	37,129	13·47

The average number of pupils in each school was—

64 in Government schools,
65 in Aided schools,
79 in Unaided schools under inspection,
57 in Native State schools.

But it has been shown at page 85 that the average in each urban school in British districts was 139.

The distribution of the Government, aided, and unaided schools over the area of the presidency will be seen in the table which follows:—

District.	Government Schools.		Aided Schools.		Unaided Schools under Inspection.		Schools in Native States.		Total Number of Schools.	Total Number of Scholars.	Increase per cent. on the Total Number of Schools in 1880-81.	Increase per cent. on the Total Number of Scholars in 1880-81.
	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars.	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars.	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars.	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars.				
Southern Division	730	52,653	11	824	...	...	268	15,090	1,009	68,567	3·38	19·49
Central Division	1,033	60,306	61	4,645	4	334	150	6,406	1,248	71,691	5·76	11·26
North-East Division	791	43,906	13	519	...	...	...	...	804	44,425	16·01	17·01
Northern Division	361	61,285	19	1,567	2	142	812	48,572	1,694	1,11,566	4·31	9·61
Sindh	212	13,950	42	2,009	...	...	...	...	254	15,959	10·91	9·14
Aden	3	563	...	...	...	...	...	...	3	563	...	56·88
Total	3,630	232,663	146	9,564	6	476	1,230	70,068	5,012	3,12,771	6·52	13·47

The 3,630 primary institutions administered by Government consisted of the following classes of schools:—

		Scholars.
3,401	Cess day schools attended by	220,894
84	Cess night schools ,,	2,453
99	Cess Hindustani schools ,,	6,798
16	Cess free or low-caste schools	564
27	Police and jail schools ,,	1,391
3	Aden schools ,,	563
Total 3,630		232,663

The 146 aided institutions consist of the following groups of schools:—

		Scholars.
40	Missionary or charity schools } attended by	6,016
33	Private native schools* }	
73	Indigenous schools	3,548
Total 146		9,564

The 1,236 unaided institutions were—

		Scholars.
1,182	Native State day schools attended by	68,777
48	Native State night schools attended by	1,291
6	Unaided schools under inspection in British territory attended by	476
Total 1,236		70,544

* Including two night schools with 175 pupils.

Subjects of Instruction.

4. The subjects of instruction are shown in the schedule which follows. It will be observed that there are four stages of instruction in inferior or small village schools and six in schools of a superior class. A pupil takes, on the average, five years to pass through the former and seven years to complete the latter course. The majority of children begin to attend school at six or seven years of age, and the first two years of their school life are generally spent in learning the subjects prescribed in Standard I. These are mainly the vernacular alphabets and numerical tables. In the Mahárâshtra the script, or Modi character, differs considerably from the Bálbodh or Devanagari letters; and under the present system a child takes fully a year to learn to read and write the letters of both alphabets. As soon as he can count up to 100, which is generally the first thing taught him, he commits to memory multiplication tables up to 10 times 30. These are followed by fractional tables involving the multiples (up to 100 times) of $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, and in some schools even of $1\frac{1}{4}$. At the end of the two years the pupil is promoted to the second standard. Here he begins slate-arithmetic and advances as far as simple division. He also learns more extended numerical tables, giving (*a*) the products of all numbers from 11 to 20, multiplied successively by 11 up to 20, (*b*) the multiples (up to 100 times) of $1\frac{1}{4}$, $1\frac{1}{2}$ and $2\frac{1}{2}$, and (*c*) the simplest Indian measures of weight and capacity, and the divisions of time and money. In a few town-schools children also learn tables giving the multiples of $3\frac{1}{2}$ and the squares of numbers from 1 to 100. But these are not inflicted upon pupils in village schools. In indigenous schools these elaborate tables, and others still more difficult, are in general use and are considered by the Pantoji to be indispensable. As we have already shown in Section A, they were adopted by the department in the year 1870 as a concession to the popular sentiment, which the Pantoji was believed to represent, and with the view of co-ordering the indigenous with the Government system of instruction. Every pupil in the two lowest classes of a cess school is practised daily in his tables in order that he may acquire the greatest possible readiness in solving questions in mental arithmetic to which a large portion of his time will be devoted in the next three standards. But it is a question whether this advantage is not too dearly purchased; for, it will be observed, that the pupils do not begin their first reading-book or learn to write easy sentences, and to recite simple verses until they have entered upon their third year at school. Their memories are stored with figures, but their imaginative and emotional faculties are wholly ignored. To this must be added that about 80 per cent. of the children cease to attend the school on or before completing the studies of the 4th standard. It follows, therefore, that the most humanising part of the curriculum enters into only three out of the five years of their school life.

With this reservation, however, the attainments of a boy, who leaves school on passing the fourth standard, are not unsatisfactory. He can work a sum in simple proportion, and he is quick at mental arithmetic. He can also read and write a fairly legible letter. His mind has probably assimilated but little of what he has learned in his reading-book; but he is at least able to recite 200 lines of good poetry; and he has learnt the significance of a large number of useful facts about the district and Presidency in which he is living.

The subjects of instruction prescribed in the fifth and sixth standards call for no detailed remarks. But the importance of these standards as a means of gradually raising the level of primary education, without discouraging those who only desire the more limited curriculum of the first four standards, can scarcely be overrated. It is from the pupils who have studied in these two standards that the great bulk of the subordinate employés in the public service and of the clerks in the private trades and industries are drawn; and it is satisfactory to note that the number of youths who go through this additional course has been steadily increasing during the last ten years. The number of examinees who passed under these two standards was—

1,033	in	1871-72.
4,181	,,	1875-76.
5,206	,,	1881-82.

It remains for us to add that of late years the Educational Department has not neglected to encourage in the primary schools studies of an essentially practical character. Schools of technical art and industry have been established

at Bombay, Poona, Pandharpur, Dhárwár, Ratnágiri, Dhulia, Surat, and Hyderabad (Sind), which boys in primary schools attend. Sixteen drawing-classes attached to middle and high schools in Bombay, Poona, and other towns, are also open to pupils in all primary schools whether Government or private; and special vernacular classes have been opened at Nadiád, Dhulia, Násik, Ahmednagar, and Belgaum for the instruction of farmers' sons in practical agriculture.

STANDARDS OF INSTRUCTION AND EXAMINATION IN MARATHI SCHOOLS.*

Standard I.

Full Marks given at Examinations.

100 *1st Head.*—Native Multiplication-tables.
100 *2nd Head.*—The script (Modi) and Devanagari Alphabets complete. } As occurring in the new Primer.

(The names of common forms and colours are also taught in this standard.)

Standard II.

100 *1st Head.*—Arithmetic. In addition to Standard I., Notation and Numeration up to 1,000,000. Addition of not more than four numbers, each less than 100,000. Subtraction of numbers less than 100,000. Multiplication and division of numbers less than 10,000 by any number less than 100. Easy Mental Arithmetic involving questions such as those proposed in the new Primer.

100 *2nd Head.*—Reading the First and Second Books in Devanagari and the First Book in Modi, including the poetical pieces, with explanation of the part read. The Poetry to be repeated.

100 *3rd Head.*—Writing to dictation in Modi and Devanagari words of two or three syllables with compound letters. Modi large-hand copy-books to be produced.

50 *4th Head.*—Knowledge of what a map is. The boundaries, mountains, rivers, tálukas, chief towns, made-roads, railways, &c., of the Collectorate or State to be pointed out on the map.

Standard III.

100 *1st Head.*—Notation and Numeration up to 1,000,000,000. In addition to Standards I and II, the four Compound Rules and Reduction. Native Tables and English Measures of length and surface to be known. Easy Mental Arithmetic involving Native Tables of money, weight, and capacity.

100 *2nd Head.*—Reading the whole of the Third Departmental Book in Devanagari and Second in Modi, with explanation of part read and meaning of words. Parts of Speech to be pointed out. Poetry in the Reading book to be understood and repeated.

100 *3rd Head.*—Writing to dictation in Devanagari and Modi three lines from the book read, with not more than six mistakes. A full writing-book, Modi, large-hand, to be produced. (In Government schools the copy-books of the previous 12 months.)

500 *4th Head.*—Geography.—Definitions of Geography to be learnt and their meaning explained. Geography of the Presidency. Neighbouring provinces, mountains, rivers, zillahs, Native States, towns, ports, lines of railway, &c., to be pointed out on the map, and their significance explained.

Standard IV.

(Pupils are allowed to study English after passing this Standard.)

100 *1st Head.*—Arithmetic.—In addition to pevious standards, the four Compound Rules according to the Native system.—Simple Proportion, Simple Interest, Mental Arithmetic complete.

100 *2nd Head.*—Reading the whole of the Fourth Departmental Book in Devanagari with explanation of part read, meaning of words, and knowledge of Grammar as contained in the first 27 pages of Dádobá's smaller Grammar. The Poetry to be repeated. Reading a well-written Módi paper to be brought by the Examiner.

100 *3rd Head.*—Writing to dictation in Devanagari and Modi four lines from the book read, with not more than four mistakes. Modi copy-book to be produced (middle hand).

* The Standards for Gujarathi, Sindhi, Urdu, and Kánarese Schools are very similar to those here quoted. The Gujaráthi Standards, however, prescribe more advanced Mental Arithmetic, Native Accounts and Native Book-keeping than those of any other Province.

Full marks given at Examinations.

50 *4th Head.*—(*a*).—History of the Province, as of Mahárâshtra.
50 (*b*).—Geography.—Elementary Physical and Political Geography of India. Knowledge of the map, including information similar to that required by Standard III.

Standard V.

100 *1st Head.*—Arithmetic.—In addition to previous standards, Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, Compound Proportion, and Compound Interest. Mental Arithmetic with harder examples.

100 *2nd Head.*—Reading the whole of the Departmental Fifth Book, with explanation of the subject-matter and meaning and derivation of words occurring in the portion read. Grammar as in the first 52 pages of Dádobá's smaller Grammar. 500 lines of the poetry to be committed to memory. Reading any ordinary Modi papers brought by the Examiner.

100 *3rd Head.*—Writing to dictation in Devanagari and Modi five lines from the Book, read with not more than three mistakes. A full writing-book (Modi small-hand) to be shown.

50 *4th Head.*—(*a*).—History of India up to A.D. 1880, as in Morris or any smaller book.

50 (*b*).—Geography.—In addition to previous standards, general knowledge of the maps of Asia and Europe, and some acquaintance with the Physical and Political Geography of the countries contained in them.

Standard VI.

(Qualifies for 2nd Class Certificate for admission to the lower grades of the Public Service.)

100 *1st Head.*—Mathematics.—Arithmetic (complete); Euclid, Book I; and Native Accounts.

100 *2nd Head.*—Reading the whole of the Sixth Departmental Book with explanation of the subject-matter. Grammar as in Dádobá's smaller Grammar. Easy questions on Prosody and Etymology. 600 lines of the Poetry to be repeated. Reading rough Modi papers with fair fluency (papers to be brought by the Examiner, allowance being made for bad writing).

100 *3rd Head.*—Writing in current Modi an abstract, or report, or letter, on some story or incident related by the Examiner.

50 *4th Head.*—(*a*).—History of India complete, with some information about the system of Government.

(*b*).—Geography.—In addition to previous standards, General Geography and Elementary Physical Geography of the world, inclusive of terms used in relation to the Terrestrial Globe, such as equator, poles, tropics, latitude and longitude, &c., and of natural phenomena, *e.g.*, seasons, night and day, eclipses, tides, climate, rains, dew, &c. An outline map of India, with any Presidency, large province, or Native State defined, or with mountains, large rivers or towns marked as named by the Examiner.

50 *5th Head.*—Sanitary Primer by Dr. Cunningham.

N.B.—The Inspecting Officer may allow, instead of the reading-books named under Standards V and VI, any standard vernacular work of equal or greater difficulty. Under the V and VI standards the whole of the reading-books need not be exacted, provided the Inspecting Officer is satisfied with the amount offered.

The Drawing-Classes attached to Middle Schools are open to the pupils of Primary Schools. (See Schedule of Rules in para. 4 of Section C.)

In inferior schools, where an advanced knowledge of Devanagari is not required, the following standards may be substituted with sanction of the District Committee; but it is to be understood that only one set of standards may be fixed for any one school:—

STANDARDS FOR INFERIOR VERNACULAR SCHOOLS NOT TEACHING DEVANAGARI.

Standard I.

Full marks given at Examinations.

100 *1st Head.*—Native multiplication-tables.
100 *2nd Head.*—The script (Modi) and Devanagari alphabets, complete. } As occurring in the new Primer.

Full marks given at Examinations.

Standard II.

100 *1st Head.*—Arithmetic.—In addition to Standard I, Numeration and Notation up to 1,000,000. Addition of not more than four numbers, each less than 100,000. Subtraction of numbers less than 100,000. Multiplication and division of numbers less than 100,000. Easy Mental Arithmetic involving questions such as those proposed in the new Primer.

100 *2nd Head.*—Reading First Book in both Devanagari and Modi, including the poetical pieces, with explanation of the part read. The Poetry to be repeated.

100 *3rd Head.*—Writing to dictation in Modi words of two or three syllables with compound letters. Modi large-hand copy-book to be produced.

Standard III.

100 *1st Head.*—Arithmetic.—Notation and Numeration up to 1,000,000,000. In addition to Standards I and II, the four compound Rules, according to the Native system and Reduction. Native Tables to be known, and English Tables of length and surface. Easy Mental Arithmetic involving Native Tables of money, weight, and capacity.

100 *2nd Head.*—Reading Second Modi Book, with explanation of the part read. The Poetry to be repeated. Reading easy and clearly written Modi papers to be brought by the Examiners.

100 *3rd Head.*—Writing in Modi an easy passage dictated by the Examiner (about five lines). A full Modi writing-book, middle-hand, to be produced.

50 *4th Head.*—Geography.—Elementary Geography of the collectorate or State, involving knowledge of boundaries, tálukas, rivers, mountains, made-roads, railways, principal towns, &c. Places to be pointed out on the map.

Standard IV.

100 *1st Head.*—Arithmetic.—In addition to previous standards, Simple Proportion and Simple Interest. Mental Arithmetic, complete.

100 *2nd Head.*—Reading the Third Modi Book with explanation of the part read. Reading any ordinary Modi paper brought by the Examiner with some understanding of the contents. Poetry in the Reading book to be repeated.

100 *3rd Head.*—Writing in current Modi a letter, report, or petition, as directed by the Examiner. Forms of writing and ordinary Native modes of address to be known. Modi copy-book to be produced.

100 *4th Head.*—Definitions of Geography to be learnt and their meaning explained. Geography of the Presidency, neighbouring provinces, mountains, rivers, zillahs, Native States, towns, ports, lines of railway, &c., to be pointed out on the map, and their significance explained.

The mother-tongue of the pupils is almost universally the medium of instruction in every primary school. In some parts of Gujaráth and the Deccan the home-language of the Muhammadans is the same as the local Hindu Vernacular, and Muhammadan and Hindu children attend the same school. In the districts where the Muhammadans retain the Urdu, special schools or classes have been provided for them. The number of these is at present 139, and they are attended by 7,930 children.

The number of pupils learning each of the languages taught.

The numbers of pupils studying each of the languages taught in the primary schools are as follows:—

Sindhi	14,324
Gurmukhi	7
Gujaráthi	116,919
Maráthi	125,661
Kanarese	48,895
Hindustáni	6,515
Portuguese	290
Sanskrit	160
	312,771

Text-books.

The following is a list of the chief text-books used in Government, Aided and Inspected schools:—

READING-BOOKS.

Prose and Verse.

1. Departmental Gujaráthi Reading-Series I—VII, compiled by the Honourable T. C. Hope, C.S.I.

2. Maráthi Reading Series I—VI, compiled by Major T. Candy, C.S.I., and printed in the Devanagári character.
3. Maráthi Reading Series I—III, compiled by Ráo Sáheb Sitárám and series V, Patvardhan, and lithographed in the Modi or script character.
4. Kánarese Reading Series I—VI, translated mainly from Major Candy's Maráthi Series.
5. Sindhi Reading Series I—VI, compiled and revised by the Sind Vernacular Literature Committee and printed in the Arabic-Sindhi characters.
6. Sindhi Reading Series I—IV, compiled and revised by the Sindhi Vernacular Literature Committee and printed in the Hindu-Sindhi characters.
7. Hindustáni Reading Series I—III, compiled by Sayed Abdul Fatteh.
8. Persian Reading Series: Agaz Fársi; Pandanámá Saadi; Pandanámá Attar; Shikandarnámá.
9. Christian Vernacular Society's Maráthi Reading Series, Books I—IV.
10. Bombay Tract and Book Society's Maráthi Primer in Devanagári and Modi.
11. Portuguese Reading Series I—VI by B. F. DeCosta.
12. Æsop's Fables translated into the several vernaculars of the Presidency.
13. Navanit, an Anthology of standard Maráthi poetry.
14. Kavitá Sangraha, an Anthology of Gujaráthi poetry, compiled by the Honourable T. C. Hope, C.S.I.
15. Kathá Sangraha, Parts I and II, an Anthology of Kánarese poetry.
16. Departmental 1st and 2nd Books of Kánarese poetry.

Grammar.

17. Departmental Manuals on Grammar, Etymology, and Prosody in Maráthi, Gujaráthi, Kánarese, Sindhi, Hindustáni, Persian, and Portuguese.
18. Christian Vernacular Society's Maráthi Grammar.

History and Geography.

19. Departmental Manuals reciting the History and Topography of each Zillah in the Presidency.
20. Departmental History of Mahárashtra, in Maráthi and Kánarese.
21. History of Mahárashtra, by Reverend Bábá Padmanji.
22. History of Gujarát, by Ráo Sáheb Mahipatrám Ruprám.
23. History of Sind, by Mr. Alumal.
24. History of India, compiled in Gujaráthi by Ráo Sáheb Mahipatrám Ruprám.
25. History of India, compiled in Maráthi by Mr. Vináyak Kondadeo Oke.
26. (*a*) Morris's History of India, translated into Maráthi, Gujaráthi, Kánarese, and Sindhi.
    (*b*) Elphinstone's History of India, abridged, and translated into Maráthi, by Mr. Bál Gangádhar Shástri Jámbhekar.
27. Outlines of Geográphy in Gujarathi by the Honourable T. C. Hope, C.S.I.
28. Outlines of Geography in Gujaráthi, Parts I and II, by Ráo Sáheb Mahipatrám Ruprám.
29. Geography of the Bombay Presidency . . . . } By Ráo Sáheb Sitárám Vishvanáth Patvardhan.
    Geography of India . . . . . }
    Geography of the World . . . . . }
30. Departmental Geography in Kánarese, Parts I—III.
31. Elementary Geography in Hindustáni, by Ghulam Mahomed Munshi.
32. Geography of the Bombay Presidency . . . . } Compiled in Sindhi by the Educational Department.
    Geography of Asia . . . . . }
    Geography of Europe . . . . . }
33. Geikie's Physical Geography, translated into Gujaráthi.
34. A Manual of Physical Geography, compiled by Mahádev Shástri and others, in Maráthi and Kánarese.
35. Blanford's Physical Geography translated into Maráthi by Ráo Sáheb B. R. Sahasrabuddhi, and into Gujaráthi by Ráo Sáheb Mahipatrám Ruprám.

Mathematics.

36. Manuals of Native Tables and Mental Arithmetic in the several vernaculars of the Presidency.

37. Manuals of Arithmetic, compiled in the vernaculars of the Presidency, by Professor Kero Lakshman Chhatre, and others.
38. The Elements of Euclid, Book I, translated into the vernaculars by, Mr. G. V. Karkare, B.A., and others.
39. Treatises on Indian Accounts and Book-keeping, prepared in the vernaculars, by Mr. Lotalikar and others.

General Knowledge.

40. Dr. Cunningham's Sanitary Primer, translated into the vernaculars of the Presidency.
41. Macmillan's Science Primers:
    (*a*) Balfour Stewart's Physics, translated into Maráthi by Professor Kero Lakshman Chhatre.
    (*b*) Roscoe's Chemistry,—translated into Maráthi by Ráo Sáheb K. B. Maráthi, LL.B., and into Gujaráthi by Ráo Sáheb Mahipatrám Ruprám.
    (*c*) Foster's Physiology,—translated into Maráthi by Ráo Sáheb K. B. Maráths, LL.B., and into Gujaráthi by Ráo Sáheb Mahipatrám Ruprám.
    (*d*) Lockyer's Astronomy, translated into Maráthi by Ráo Sáheb K. B. Maráthi, LL.B.
42. Professor Cooke's Natural Science Series:
    (*a*) Geology, translated into Maráthi by Mr. M. V. Káne, B.A.
    (*b*) Astronomy . . } Translated into Gujaráthi by Mr. Balvantrám and by
    (*c*) Natural Philosophy . } Ráo Sáheb Mahipatrám Ruprám.
43. A Maráthi Manual of Lessons on Elementary Natural Science by Krishna Shástri Chiplunkar.
44. Oral Lessons (in Gujaráthi) in elementary general knowledge, by the Honourable T. C. Hope, C.S.I.
45. A Treatise (in Maráthi) on Astronomy, Bombay Tract and Book Depository.
46. An Elementary Treatise on Human and Comparative Anatomy, compiled in Maráthi, by Reverend H. J. Bruce, of the American Mission.
47. Robertson's Treatise on Agriculture, translated into Gujaráthi by Ráo Sáheb Mahipatrám Ruprám.
48. Fowler's Discipline and Instruction, translated into Maráthi and Gujaráthi (for pupil-teachers in Primary Schools).

A minute analysis of the contents of most of the books contained in this list is already before the Commission and will be found on pages 199—215 of the Report of the Simla text-book committee. The special committee appointed to report on the Bombay text-books wrote of the Gujaráthi Reading Series in the following terms: "We give our high and unqualified approbation to the series of seven reading-books prepared and carried through the press in 1858 and 1859 by Mr. T. C. Hope, C.S.I., while Educational Inspector for Gujarát. For graduation, matter, composition, and style they are excellent and in every respect adapted to the work of native education. Many of the pieces which they contain are original, and they are always presented to the reader from an Indian point of view. They have an extensive range of subjects and convey much useful and important information on common subjects. They are altogether unobjectionable on the score of morality; and the lessons which they convey in this direction are judiciously introduced and point to the character and will of God and the well-being of man as the basis of morality." The committee wrote in equally high praise of the Maráthi Series compiled by Major Candy. The lessons in the Kánarese and Sindhi reading books are mainly taken from these two series. Of the books of poetry, grammar, history, and geography it will be sufficient to add that the recommendations which were made by the text-book committee in 1877 have been fully adopted by the Bombay Educational Department. In each of the chief provinces in this Presidency, *viz.*, in Sind, Gujarát, Mahárashtra, and the Southern Maratha Country, a vernacular literature committee, composed of Native and European scholars, has for several years past been actively engaged in revising these volumes and bringing them up to date. The criticism of all persons competent to pronounce an opinion has been freely sought by the department; and no text-book has been reprinted during the last ten years, which could be displaced by a better, or which at any rate has not previously undergone careful revision. The only desiderata which appear to us to be still unsupplied are (1) a brief and accurate History of India in which the main episodes are narrated in a way that will strike and interest children, and (2) a complete series of Hindustáni reading-books.

The general knowledge section of the list above given deserves attention. The vernacular translations of MacMillan's Science Primers and of such books as Robertson's Treatise on Indian Agriculture, Bruce's Human and Comparative Anatomy, and Cooke's Indian Geology are the works of some of the ablest native scholars in the Presidency and are designed for the use of pupils in the two highest classes of our superior vernacular schools. Some of these books relate to branches of natural science which are not yet prescribed in the standards of instruction; but it is the intention of the Educational Department to introduce them into the Code as optional subjects.

Departmental Standards of Examination.

5. The Inspector's examinations are regulated by the standards of instruction described in the last sub-section. The two tables, which follow, show the number of children who passed in all heads of each standard and the total number who passed separately in arithmetic, reading, writing, history, and geography. Of the 223,000 children in average attendance 156,000 or 70 per cent. were presented for examination, and of these 84,000 or 54 per cent. passed in all the subjects in which they were examined. The ratio between the number who thus passed and the total number in average attendance throughout the year was ·37. These lists show an improvement on the results of the preceding year; but it will be observed that the inspected (*i.e.*, Native State) schools have obtained a better average than the Government cess-schools. The chief reason for this apparent superiority is that the latter institutions reach the masses of the people, while the Native State schools are much more confined to the upper classes of the population. This is proved by the fact that of the children attending the cess-schools 35·42 per cent. belong to the agricultural and labouring classes, while in the primary schools maintained by the Native States the proportion of such children is only 19·15 per cent.

TABLE I.—*Examination-Results in 1881-82.*

Class of Schools.	Number of Pupils in average attendance.	Number of Pupils examined.	Number passed under all Heads.						Total number passed.	Ratio between the number passed in all Heads and the number examined.	Ratio between the number paseed and the total number in average attendance.
			Standard I.	Standard II.	Standard III.	Standard IV.	Standard V.	Standard VI.			
Government	164,168·6	116,639	26,728	16,175	10,308	5,801	2,390	831	62,233	·53	·37
Aided	7,297·92	4,009	782	446	279	171	50	11	1,739	·43	·22
Inspected	51,851·6	36,086	9,014	5,273	3,441	1,953	751	186	20,618	·57	·39
Total results in 1881-82	223,318·12	156,734	36,524	21,894	14,028	7,925	3,191	1,028	84,590	·54	·37
Corresponding figures for 1880-81	194,063·26	141,997	29,986	19,162	12,199	7,061	2,805	851	72,054	·51	·37
Increase per cent. in 1881-82 on results of previous year	15·02	10·37	21·80	14·31	16·63	12·22	13·76	20·91	17·29	...	...

TABLE II.

	Standards.	Number examined.	Arithmetic.	Reading.	Writing.	History and Geography.
Government	I to VI	1,16,639	81,668	80,058	83,445	45,830
Aided	Do.	4,009	2,730	2,802	2,730	1,334
Inspected	Do.	36,086	26,603	24,576	27,365	14,858
	TOTAL	1,56,734	1,11,001	1,07,436	1,13,540	62,022
Results in 1880-81		1,41,997	98,246	93,205	1,00,427	56,112
Increase per cent. in 1881-82 on results of 1880-81		10·37	12·98	15·26	13·05	10·05

Libraries.

6. Every cess-school is furnished with at least one copy of each of the class-books and wall-maps* required by the teacher for his own use; and there are few aided and inspected schools which are not similarly equipped. Almost all the schools have besides a collection of books of reference and of general reading, such as dictionaries and works of poetry, travel, history, and natural science. In most of the Inspectors' divisions also there is a monthly school-paper, which is supplied to the town-schools. In small village-schools the libraries seldom contain more than 50 volumes; in the larger schools rarely less than 100. But the library of the chief school of a táluka has more than 200 and in a few instances even 1,000 volumes. One of the Educational Inspectors gives the following analysis of the libraries in the primary schools of his Division :—

426	schools have each a library of	not more than 50 volumes.
165	do.	between 50 and 100 volumes.
74	do.	do. 100 and 200 do.
36	do.	do. 200 and 500 do.
1	school has a library of	1,000 volumes.

Yearly allotments are made from local cess funds for the purchase of library-books approved by the Department; and new vernacular works, purchased by the Director of Public Instruction for the encouragement of literature, are annually presented to the larger libraries.

The library of the primary school is intended chiefly for the teacher's use, but the boys of the highest class are allowed to consult it occasionally. In the rural districts, where books are scarce and the school-masters seldom have any of their own, the school-library is most useful. But in the larger towns in which there is generally a public reading-room, the master's spare time is more frequently given up to the newspapers, and the school-library is but little consulted.

Apparatus of Instruction.

The *black-board and stand* is universally used: so also are *slates* and *writing-paper*, except by beginners, who usually have sanded writing-boards.

Arithmeticons and *Form* and *Colour-boxes* and *charts* are very generally used in the infant-classes of the schools of the Nothern Division. In the other Divisions they have been partially introduced. The Kindergarten system has been adopted with considerable success in a few of the aided schools; and *scales* and *weights*, as also *terrestrial globes* have been supplied to a considerable number of the cess-schools that teach the highest standards of instruction. Accurately drawn *wall-pictures* of animals and other living objects were ordered from England in December last and will very shortly be issued to most of the town-schools throughout the Presidency. In the North-East Division 48 schools have collections of mineral, botanical, and other natural objects, most of which have been obtained by the pupils themselves under the guidance of the masters. Twenty-one schools have gardens, and prizes are annually awarded for the three best in each Collectorate.

Accommodation.

7. The total number of buildings occupied by the cess-schools on the 31st of March last was 3,778. Of these 688 were substantially built with cemented stone or brick masonry and were valued at over Rs. 17,80,000; 560 others were structures built after the country fashion of less lasting materials, and 2,530 were private houses, temples, and chávdis lent or let to the Educational Department. Almost all the school-houses included in the first of these groups were erected by the Public Works Department and were well lighted and ventilated. But it will be observed that their cost has been considerable. The lighting and ventilation of a large number of the buildings included in the other two groups were very defective. One of the Inspectors describes many of these school-houses as "dark, ill-ventilated, and in hot weather, foul and unwholesome;" and the same condemnation is passed on many of the school-houses in the other Divisions. They are being improved, however, as fast as funds will permit.

The cleanliness of the school-room is a point that has received careful attention both from the Educational Department and from the managers of most of the aided schools. The master of a cess-school is granted a weekly allowance to

* The names on the maps are printed in the pupils' vernacular; and the maps themselves are periodically revised and kept up to date.

enable him to keep the school-house clean and tidy; and the walls of every class-room are white-washed once a year.

Our returns for the Native States are incomplete. But the Inspector of the Northern Division reports that in Cutch, Káthiáwár, Pálanpur, and the other Feudatory States of his Division the total number of school-houses occupied by the inspected primary schools was 856, of which 371 were substantial structures of stone or brick and were of the collective value of Rs. 9,23,950; 249 were built of inferior materials; and 236 were rented houses or other buildings, temporarily lent for the purpose.

We subjoin a statement giving a detailed list of the school-buildings in each Division, but we have been unable to ascertain the amount of unused accommodation in them. Looking however to the fact that the average number of children in each school has in the last four years risen from 50 to 64 and to the statements made by the Inspectors that many of their school-houses require enlarging, the amount of accommodation still available must be extremely small:—

Division.	Pucka-built school houses.	Cost.	Kutcha-built school-houses.	How many suitable.	How many unsuitable.	Private houses temples or Chavdis lent or let to the Department.	How many suitable.	How many unsuitable.	Total number of suitable buildings.	Total number of unsuitable buildings.
		Rs. A. P.								
Central Division	160	4,76,217 7 8	160	160	...	759	504	255	824	255
North-East Division	75	2,53,161 11 4	79	67	12	669	423	246	565	258
Northern Division	280	6,61,299 13 4	62	52	10	529	329	200	661	210
Southern Division	76	2,78,745 0 0	231	231	...	464	305	159	612	159
Sind	97	1,15,000 0 0	28	11	17	109	31	78	139	95
Total British Districts	688	17,84,424 0 4	560	521	39	2,530	1,592	938	2,801	977
Feudatory States in the Northern Division	371	9,23,950 1 8	249	216	33	236	116	120	703	153
Grand Total	1,059	27,08,374 2 0	809	737	72	2,766	1,708	1,058	3,504	1,130

Furniture.

Every cess-school is supplied with at least one table and chair for the master; a bench for the school-committee, a box for books and records; a board or card for the time-table; and a sand-glass. The pupils usually sit on the ground or on mats or carpets. In schools in which more than one teacher is employed the furniture is proportionately increased. All the larger schools are furnished with cupboards, map-boxes and clocks or brass-gongs; and the boys of the two highest classes of a táluka school are provided with benches and desks. Samais or brass-lamps are supplied to the night-schools.

The furniture in the Native State schools is similar in character and quantity to that given to the cess-schools.

The manufacture of the furniture is contracted for annually by the local jail or by private workshops. The prices paid for it vary in different districts, but the average cost both of furniture and apparatus may be stated as follows:—

Furniture.	Rs.	A.	*Apparatus.*	Rs.	A.
Table	5	0	Black-board	4	12
Chair	3	0	Stand for board	2	4
Stool	2	4	Arithmeticon	2	12
Bench	6	0	Form and colour-box	4	0
Cup-board	17	0	Map-pointer	0	3
Map-box (small)	4	4	Scale and weights	2	4
Map-box (large)	8	0	Wall-maps from	3	8
Record-box	5	0		each	
Hour-glass	1	6	to	6	0
Half-hour glass	1	2	Terrestrial globe	30	0
Gong	5	0	Wall pictures (published by A. K. Johnston & Co., Edinburgh) each	1	0
Ruler	0	6			
Pad-locks	0	8			

Registration of attendance.

8. The attendance* of the masters and pupils is usually registered by the head master personally, morning and afternoon, one hour after the school has assembled. The attendance-roll is a bound book, prepared for the department at the Government Central Press, and it is supplied to all Government and aided schools. At the end of the month the master of the cess-school is required to send to the Deputy Inspector an abstract from this register showing the number of scholars on the rolls, the average number in daily attendance, the number paying fees, and the number exempted from payment. A summary of these returns is submitted to the Educational Inspector quarterly, and any marked rise or fall in the attendance of a school is carefully noted. If the attendance is found to have gone down considerably, the school-committee and other local authorities are communicated with. If they fail to improve it, the school is in extreme cases transferred by the district committee to another village; or, if that step is not called for, the teaching-staff is in some cases reduced. If, on the other hand, the number in average attendance is seen to be too large for the teaching-staff†, additional assistants are appointed. The district committees have thus economised their resources in the best possible manner; for they have checked waste in the teaching-power, without impairing its necessary strength; and it is largely owing to this economy that they have been able in the last three years, while opening only 700 new cess-schools, to accommodate more than 90,000 additional children.

To ensure honest registration of attendance, the following measures have been adopted. The local school-committees are required to frequently examine the registers and to report all serious irregularities to the Deputy Inspector. In many cases this duty has not been performed; but on the whole the presence of the committees on the spot has been salutary. In addition to this the attendance-roll is thoroughly examined at least once in the year (often twice or thrice) by an Inspecting Officer of the Educational Department. It is also frequently checked by the asisstant collector and occasionally by the Collector himself and by other Government officers touring through the district. Many of the visits thus paid to the schools are visits of surprise; and in any case it is now extremely difficult for a master to be careless or fraudulent in his registration wihout being detected.

Training colleges and teachers.

9. The present position of the training colleges and the number of teachers trained in them between the years 1871 and 1881 is shown in the following tabular statement:—

* It may be here mentioned that the cess-schools are in most districts open for 264 days in the year. The holidays are as follows:—

	No. of days.
Holi Festival	6
Diváli	6
Sundays, market-days, and other miscellaneous holidays	89

The cess-schools, as a rule, meet for 33 hours a week.

† 30 pupils in average attendance are the average maximum assigned to each master.

Number.	Name of institution.	Number of Students on the Rolls on March 31st 1882.	Average Number on the Rolls monthly during 1882.	Average daily Attendance.	Race or Creed of Scholars.				Number of Scholars on March 31st 1882 learning										Total Expenditure.	Total Cost per Scholar.	Cost to Government per Scholar.	Number of Students who in 1881-82 left College with Certificates of Training.						Total for 1881-82.	Number of Students who received Training Certificates between 1871-72 and 1880-81.			Total for the 10 years.	Remarks.
					Brâhmins.	Other Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Native Christians.	English.	Sanskrit.	Persian.	Arabic.	Marâthi.	Gujarathi.	Kánarese.	Sindhi.	Hindustáni.					1st-year men entitled to a Salary of	2nd-year men entitled to a Salary of			3rd-year men entitled to a Salary of			1st-year men entitled to Salaries of Rs. 9 per mensem.	2nd-year men entitled to Salaries varying from Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 per mensem.	3rd-year men entitled to Salaries varying from Rs. 20 to Rs. 25 per mensem.		
																			Rs.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. 9.	Rs. 10.	Rs. 12.	Rs. 15.	Rs. 20.	Rs. 25.					
	British Districts.																						2nd Class.	2nd Class.	1st Class.	2nd Class.	1st Class.					
	Government.																															
1	Sind—																															
	Hyderabad	24	29·4	27·2	...	13	11	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	24	...		5,241	178 4 11	106 11 8	...	...	3	...	5	...	8	...	48	96	144*	* Includes teachers trained at Sukkur and Shikárpur Normal School now closed.
2	Gujarath—																															
	Ahmedabad	91	82·7	72·9	49	29	13	...	...	...	...	...	...	91	...	...	...		12,199	147 8 1	100 10 5	...	...	16	...	4	...	20		198	52	255	
3	Maháráshtra—																															
	Poona	145	142·	123	134	5	6	...	...	139	...	...	139	...	...	...	6		19,080	134 5 10	97 0 4	...	32	...	...	7	2	41	...	528	112	640†	† Includes 120 teachers trained in the Dhulia Normal School now closed.
4	Southern Marátha Country—																															
	Dhárwár	100	98·7	84·8	65	26	9	...	...	93	7	...	...	...	90	...	...		14,529	147 3 3	91 1 5	...	...	16	14	...	10	40	...	296	100	396	
	Private.																															
5	Maháráshtra—																															
	Ahmednagar	46	44·	42	...	...	...	46	46	...	...	...	46	...	...	...	...		3,000‡	.....	.....	...	...	...	...	No Certificates granted.							200 students trained in this Institution have been employed as teachers since 1866.
	Native States.																															
6	Rájkot	61	61·5	57·5	44	14	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	61	...	...	...		8,878	144 5 8	.....	...	...	...	21	...	...	21	...	166	...	166	
7	Kolhápur	13	18·6	16·3	13	...	...	...	...	13	...	...	13	...	...	...	...		2,309	124 2 3	.....	...	...	...	...	9	2	11	...	71	46	117	
	Total .	480	476·9	423·7	305	87	42	46	46	245	7	...	198	152	90	24	6		62,246	130 8 5	97 4 3	...	32	35	35	25	14	141	5	1,307	406	1,718	

‡ Excluding the salary of the European Superintendet.

It is unnecessary for us to give any précis of the training college codes, as that of the Gujarath College has already been presented to the Commission* and the codes of the other colleges do not materially differ from it. The pupil-teacher system now in force is substantially the same, as that instituted by Mr. Peile in 1869 (*See* page 38).

The total number of teachers employed in the cess-schools at the end of 1881-82 was 9,314. Of these 4,565 were head or sole masters, of whom 2,077 or 45·49 per cent. held training college certificates; 2,683 were assistant masters, of whom 374 or 13·94 per cent. were certificated, and 2,066 were pupil-teachers.

The average number of scholars in average attendance allotted to each teacher was 23. The table which follows gives a further distribution of these figures by Inspectorates:—

British Territory and Native States.	Total number of Teachers (Masters, Assistants and Pupil-teachers).	Trained Masters.	Untrained Masters.	Percentage of Trained Masters to total number of Masters.	Trained Assistants.	Untrained Assistants.	Percentage of Trained Assistants to total number of Assistants.	Pupil-teachers.	Average number of Scholars in average attendance allotted to each Teacher whether Master, Assistant or Pupil-teacher.
Central Division .	2,016	336	662	37·32	99	544	15·40	315	24·83
North-East Division .	1,476	255	540	32·08	52	420	11·02	209	21·64
Northern Division .	3,683	913	840	52·08	113	824	12·06	993	20·54
Southern Division .	1,739	352	412	46·07	52	414	11·16	509	27·68
Sind	400	161	34	82·05	58	107	35·15	40	24·85
TOTAL .	9,314	2,077	2,488	45·49	374	2,309	13·94	2,066	23·19

That nearly 55 per cent. of the masters in charge of the cess-schools are uncertificated is a fact that demands some explanation. It will be seen from the table given below that of the 2,488 masters returned as untrained 1,371 received salaries amounting to less than Rs. 10 per mensem. These men are placed in charge of branch or small village-schools for which teachers of special college training are not at all necessary. At present at any rate the department would not be justified in appointing to such schools a more expensive agency, especially as the masters now in charge have nearly all of them passed an examination in the highest vernacular standard and are not incompetent to perform the duties entrusted to them. In estimating, therefore, the number of trained teachers that are really desirable, these 1,371 masterships should be omitted. It will then be seen that the percentage of untrained teachers is less than 35 per cent. of the total number of employés, who ought to be trained. In the public elementary schools of England and Wales last year the number of untrained masters was nearly 30 per cent. of the total number employed. On this point the Lords of the Committee of the Privy Council make the following remark, which we consider to be equally applicable to the uncertificated masters of large schools in this Presidency. "Of the teachers who from whatever causes have not attended a training college, a considerable proportion cannot, except in a technical sense of the word, be classed as *untrained*, having under the superintendence of some of our best teachers passed through the pupil-teacher's course and served as assistants in large schools before passing the examination for a certificate and undertaking independent charges."

The monthly salaries drawn by teachers in the cess-schools are shown in the following classified statement. Employés in receipt of only Rs. 4 or Rs. 5 per mensem are with rare exceptions pupil-teachers. All who are permanently engaged on a salary exceeding Rs. 10 per mensem are eligible for pensions. Those masters, moreover, who have been instructed in the training colleges

* See Appendix I of Mr. Chatfield's Special Report on Primary Education submitted to the Government of India under cover of the Government of Bombay's Resolution No. 1620, dated October 31st, 1881.

receive in addition to the minimum pay named in their college-certificates an allowance calculated on the results of the annual examination of their schools, and on the average attendance of their pupils during the year. This system of payment-by-results works fairly well. It enables the trained master of a large and flourishing school to almost double the minimum pay of his rank, but there is a certain drawback to the system in the uneven character of the village-schools, the attendance in which often varies considerably from causes over which the master has no control. The highest monthly pay given to the head master of a primary school rarely exceeds Rs. 60, but teachers of long and approved service are eligible for Assistant Deputy Inspectorships, the pay of which posts is Rs. 75 per mensem. The prospects of a vernacular schoolmaster are not equal to those which an employé of similar status in the Revenue Department is generally believed to have. But the former occupies a not un-honoured position among the people. In ninety schools out of a hundred he is a Bráhman. In the rural districts he is often chosen to manage the village post-office, by which arrangement he secures additional pay and importance, and in towns he is not unfrequently a member of the municipal committee. On the whole it may be said that the cess-schools have succeeded in attracting a competent class of men superior in every respect to the master of the indigenous school and in point of education and intelligence rather above the average of the subordinate employés in other branches of the public service.

	Total Number of Masters, Assistants and Pupil-teachers.	On Rs. 4 to Rs. 5.	Percentage.	Between Rs. 5 and 10.	Percentage.	Between Rs. 10 and 15.	Percentage.	Between Rs. 15 and 25.	Percentage.	Between Rs. 25 and 45.	Percentage.	Between Rs. 45 and 55.	Percentage.	Rs. 55 and above.	Percentage.
CENTRAL DIVISION.															
Masters	1,058	1		432		389		155		78		3		...	
Assistants	958	394	19·59	411	41·29	118	25·15	34	9·38	1	3·92	...	·14	...	...
NORTH-EAST DIVISION.															
Masters	795	...		309		325		114		47		...		...	
Assistants	681	262	17·75	330	43·29	70	26·76	19	9·01	...	3·19	...	...	...	...
NORTHERN DIVISION.															
Masters	1,753	33		363		359		360		112		16		10	
Assistants	1,930	1,242	34·62	536	24·39	100	26·08	62	11·18	...	3·02	...	·43	...	·027
SOUTHERN DIVISION															
Masters	764	1		229		303		115		32		4		...	
Assistants	975	637	36·69	245	27·26	77	26·45	14	7·42	2	1·95	...	·23	...	...
SIND.															
Masters	195	...		3		32		92		61		5		2	
Assistants	205	50	12·5	42	11·25	47	19·75	54	36·75	10	17·75	2	1·75	...	0·50
TOTAL	9,314	2,620	28·13	2,900	31·14	2,400	25·78	1,009	10·83	343	3·67	30	·32	12	·13

Expenditure.

10. The total expenditure from all sources on cess, aided and inspected primary schools was Rs. 17,69,260. This sum was distributed as follows:—

	Rs.
Cess-schools	12,92,894
Aided schools	41,657
Inspected schools	4,34,709

Cess-schools.

Of the Rs. 12,92,894 spent on cess-schools less than ⅓rd, or Rs. 4,00,116, was contributed from provincial revenues, and Rs. 8,92,778, or rather more than two-thirds, from local resources. Excluding the indirect charges, *viz.*, direction, inspection, training colleges, translation departments, &c., the total cost of the *maintenance* of the cess-schools (*i. e.*, teachers' and scholars' stipends, books, furniture, and the up-keep of buildings) was Rs. 10,89,597, of which the provincial share was 23 per cent. or Rs. 2,46,690, as against 77 per cent. or Rs. 8,42,907 contributed from local resources. The latter sum was distributed in the following proportions:—

Agricultural cess	77·49 per cent.
Municipal grants	4·51 „
Scholars' fees	17·19 „
Subscriptions	·55 „
Endowments	·01 „
Other resources	·25 „

In analysing the cost of the cess or local fund schools it is important to distinguish between urban schools, and those situated in rular districts. Our returns are not sufficiently complete to enable us to state the exact cost of the urban schools, included in the tabular statement at the beginning of sub-section 2. But taking the 156 municipal town-ships of the Presidency, which include all the

larger towns and nearly all the smaller ones, we find that the total cost of these urban cess-schools last year was Rs. 3,51,852, of which only Rs. 1,34,580 or 38 per cent. was locally raised, Rs. 17,291 being agricultural cess paid within municipal limits, Rs. 65,434 school-fees, Rs. 51,728 municipal grants, and Rs. 126 miscellaneous contributions. Hitherto the provincial grant to primary education has been credited as a lump-sum to the cess-fund of each zillah without any distinction being made between rural and urban districts. An equitable division of the provincial grant between these two classes of schools, has never been fixed; but it may be assumed that it should bear some proportion to the number and proficiency of the scholars, to the funds locally raised and to the intellectual backwardness of the population. The town-schools are relatively more efficient than the village-schools; but this claim is more than counterbalanced by the claim which the rural population have upon the State by reason of their greater illiteracy. In other respects also the rural districts have far stronger claims than the townships. The ratio between the number of scholars attending village and town-schools is nearly as three to one respectively. The ratio between the amounts locally raised for the maintenance of those schools is as five to one. It would not be unfair, therefore, to assign to rural districts at least three-fourths of the provincial grant to primary education. But last year while the agricultural classes paid the whole of the local education-rate and contributed 96 per cent. of the total cost of their rural schools, they received a grant-in-aid from the State of Rs. 29,418, which was only 4 per cent. of what their schools cost to maintain. On the other hand, the population of the municipal towns, though they paid no general education-rate and contributed only 38 per cent. or Rs. 1,34,580 of the total cost of their primary schools, received from the State no less than Rs. 2,17,272 or 62 per cent. of the total expenditure.* This is an anomaly which in our opinion should be removed. In England last year the urban population paid fully $\frac{2}{3}$rds of the local education-rates, and the farmers only $\frac{1}{15}$th, while the State equally assisted both. It is true that the English agriculturist would have to pay considerably more than $\frac{1}{15}$th if the school-boards were more generally to take the place of the voluntary schools established in the rural districts. But the present position of the agricultural class in England with respect to education clearly indicates a policy by which the greater burden of direct taxation for the maintenance of elementary schools is made to fall on the urban populations.

The average total cost per annum of maintaining each primary school in the municipal towns was Rs. 643. In rural districts it was Rs. 239, the provincial grant to each municipal school being Rs. 397-3-3 and to each rural school Rs. 9-8-8. Our returns do not show the average monthly number of scholars on the rolls for town and village-schools separately, but taking the number on their rolls at the end of March last, the cost per scholar was Rs. 5-11-6 in the former and Rs. 4-4-11 in the latter class of schools. The average mean cost per head for both classes of schools together (taking the average monthly number on the rolls as the divisor) was Rs. 4-15 per annum as against Rs. 5-0-5 in the year 1880-81, and of this sum of Rs. 4-15, provincial funds contributed Re. 1-1-11.

Aided Schools.

The average total cost of each aided school, whether indigenous or maintained by missionary societies or private native gentlemen, was Rs. 262-5-11 per annum. The average contributions to each of these schools from provincial funds or from the local cess were as follows :—

Number of schools.	Class of schools.	Average contribution to each school from Provincial Funds.	Average contribution to each school from the Local cess.
		Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
73	Indigenous	.....	34 10 3
40	Missionary	85 12 9	.....
33	Private	176 12 7	.....

Inspected Schools.

The total cost of each school inspected in Native States was Rs. 308-1-6 per annum and the total cost per scholar Rs. 5-9-8.

Further details regarding the expenditure on each of these classes of primary schools are given in the following table :—

* It is estimated that the school buildings erected in the last 16 years in municipal towns have cost about Rs. 15,00,000, most of which sum has been appropriated from the rates paid by the agriculturists.

Return of Expenditure on Primary Educational Establishments in the Bombay Presidency for the Official year 1881-82.

Object of Expenditure.	Government Institutions.								Aided Institutions.								Unaided Institutions under Regular Inspection.							Total Expenditure.				Percentage on Total Expenditure on Primary Education.	§ Average Annual Cost of Educating each Pupil in								
																												Government Institutions.				Aided Institutions.				Unaided Institutions.	
	Provincial Revenues.	Local Rates or Cesses.	Municipal Grants.	Fees.	Subscriptions.	Endowments.	Other Sources.*	Total.	Provincial Revenues.	Local Rates or Cesses.	Municipal Grants.	Fees.	Subscriptions.	Endowments.	Other Sources.	Total.	Revenue of Native States.	Endowments.	Subscriptions.	Fees.	Municipal Grants.	Other Sources.	Total.	Provincial Revenues.	Other Sources controlled by Government Officers.	Other Sources not controlled by Government Officers.	Grand Total.		Total Cost.	Cost to Provincial Revenues.	Cost to Local Rates and Cesses.	Cost to Municipalities.	Total Cost.	Cost to Provincial Revenues.	Cost to Local Rates and Cesses.	Cost to Municipalities.	Total Cost.	Cost to Municipalities.
1	2a	2b	2c	2d	2e	2f	2g	2	3a	3b	3c	3d	3e	3f	3g	3	4a	4b	4c	4d	4e	4f	4	5a	5b	5c	5	6	7a	7b	7c	7d	8a	8b	8c	8d	9a	9b
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		R. A. P.	R. A. P.	R. A. P.	R. A. P.	R. A. P.	R. A. P.	R. A. P.	R. A. P.	R. A. P.	R. A. P.
Primary Schools for Boys	2,37,367	5,35,458	38,257	1,44,918	4,259	112	2,119	9,62,490	9,266	2,529	100	5,503	5,360	6,579	8,247	37,584	2,45,346	1,567	1,494	39,922	...	6,806	2,95,135	2,46,633	7,27,652	3,20,924	12,95,209	73·21	4 5 10	1 1 3	2 6 10	0 2 9	4 1 6	1 0 1	0 4 4	0 0 2	4 5 6	...
Training Schools for Masters	34,316	16,731	...	2	...	...	...	51,049	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	10,975	...	...	9	...	213	11,197	34,316	16,733	11,197	62,246	3·52	144 11 1	97 4 3	47 6 8	...	...	...	...	...	90 3 7	...
Direction	15,153	...	...	...	...	...	...	15,153	903	...	...	...	...	...	...	903	...	...	...	...	...	†2,430	2,430	18,486	...	...	18,486	1·04	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Inspection	92,035	4,474	...	3,852	...	...	...	1,00,361	2,410	...	...	38	...	...	...	2,448	20,731	...	...	‡103	...	†4,290	25,124	98,735	8,467	20,731	1,27,933	7·23	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Scholarships	...	999	...	...	...	40	...	1,039	...	...	507	...	...	215	...	722	3,473	...	...	...	...	3,974	7,447	...	1,039	8,169	9,208	·52	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Buildings	9,323	1,16,745	...	...	...	...	...	1,26,068	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	78,121	...	...	...	...	...	78,121	9,323	1,16,745	78,121	2,04,189	11·54	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Miscellaneous	11,922	24,187	...	...	...	...	625	36,734	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15,255	...	...	...	...	...	15,255	11,922	24,812	15,255	51,989	2·94	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Total	4,00,116	6,98,594	38,257	1,48,772	4,259	152	2,744	12,92,894	12,579	2,529	607	5,541	5,360	6,794	8,247	41,657	3,73,901	1,567	1,494	40,034	...	17,713	4,34,709	4,19,415	8,95,448	4,54,397	17,69,260	...	5 13 9	1 13 0	3 2 8	0 2 9	4 8 7	1 5 11	0 4 5	0 1 1	5 12 10	...

* Sale proceeds of dead stock, &c.
† This was Provincial expenditure controlled by the British Government.
‡ Comprising fees paid by scholars from Native States at the public service certificate examination.
§ The average annual cost of educating each pupil is calculated on the average monthly number of the students enrolled.

Fees.

11. In the cess-schools the monthly tuition-fee for the children of cess-payers is from 6 pies to 2 annas, and for non-cess-payers from 2 annas up to one rupee per mensem. In each case the rate charged varies according to the class in which the pupil is studying. But in most districts the highest fee charged to the children of non-cess-payers is rarely more than 6 annas a month, the higher rates of 8 annas and one rupee being levied in a few town-schools only.

All girls attending boys' schools are exempted from the payment of fees; so also are the children of the lowest castes of Hindus and of wild or aboriginal tribes, such as Kolis and Bhils. No fees are levied in night-schools, and in some districts Muhammadans are charged half rates in the day-schools. In addition to these special exemptions, 15 and in some divisions 20 per cent. of the total number of children on the rolls are allowed to be free; but in districts where the population is exceptionally illiterate or poor, the number of children instructed without charge is as high as 30 and even 40 per cent. of the total number on the rolls.

In the aided primary schools the scale of fees and rates of exemptions are nearly the same as in the Government schools. The aided indigenous schools, however, charge somewhat higher fees than the cess-schools.

In the Native State schools the fee rates are lower than in the cess-schools and there are also many more remissions. The Dárbars are in fact reluctant to levy any fees whatsoever.

The fees are collected by the schoolmasters monthly in advance; but 10 days' grace is usually allowed. At the end of the month or whenever the receipts amount to Rs. 5 or upwards, the master of a cess-school pays the fees into the nearest Government treasury. They are then credited to educational local funds and are available for expenditure on the schools of the district in the following year.

The system in the Native States of the Northern Division is somewhat different. In Káthiáwár 10 annas in the rupee go to the cost of inspection, 4 annas to the pension-fund and the remainder to the tálukdárs for their expenditure on school-books and furniture. In the Rewa Kántha all the fee-receipts are credited to the pension-fund. The practice of most of the other States in the Presidency is virtually the same as in British districts.

Prizes.

12. The allotments for prizes distributed to pupils in cess-schools during the year 1881-82 were as follows:—

	Allotment from Local Cess Fund.
	Rs.
Southern Division	860
Central Division	2,600
North-East Division	1,610
Northern Division	3,150
Sind	1,090
TOTAL	9,310

In the Native States in the Northern Division Rs. 5,439 were devoted to this object and similar sums were allotted by the Darbárs in the Central and Southern Divisions. Our returns from the aided schools are incomplete; but there are probably none of them which do not allot funds for this purpose.

The prizes are awarded both for proficiency and good conduct and in every school at least one prize is given to each class. They consist chiefly of books varying in value from one anna up to four rupees; but in schools attended by children of the poorest classes turbans, caps and other articles of wearing apparel are more usually given.

Scholarships.

With a few unimportant exceptions there are no scholarships tenable in primary schools. But there are open scholarships in Government 1st grade middle schools for which boys from lower institutions annually compete. There are also scholarships specially reserved for farmers' sons, who wish to learn practical agriculture at a high school model farm during the last two years of their course in a primary school. The following table shows the number and value of these:—

Scholarships tenable in	Number.	Value per mensem.		Total value per annum.
		From Rs. A.	To Rs.	Rs.
Primary schools	2	2 0	3	60
1st Grade Middle schools	12	0 8	4	288
High School Agricultural Classes	21	2 8	4	906
Total	35	104-8-0		1,254

Recommendations.

13. It is unnecessary to repeat here the remarks applicable to this section which have already been set forth in the section on indigenous schools. The witnesses examined by the Commission have unanimously borne testimony to the efficiency and elasticity of the departmental system, under which the department has administered for the cess-payers the funds which local committees have assigned for primary schools. Sir W. Wedderburn and the representative of the Sárvajanik Sabhá have however expressed the opinion, that, assuming no large increase of funds to be possible, the further extension of primary education should proceed along the lines of indigenous schools. Both these witnesses have at the same time expressed the opinion that not a single existing cess-school should be closed. We think, however, that increased provision for rural elementary schools must be obtained either by restoring to rural boards the funds taken from them for urban schools, or, as we consider preferable, by a larger provincial or imperial grant.

Extension of cess-schools.

Assuming that increased funds are available, we have proposed that a portion of them should be spent on indigenous schools. But a considerable portion would probably be utilized in extending cess-schools. Looking to the backward condition of the aboriginal races, we think that they have the first claim upon a share in any funds which may be assigned for elementary instruction. No indigenous schools will undertake their education, and the department must come forward. The standards of instruction must be reduced to the level of an entirely illiterate class, but otherwise no radical alteration of system is required. For a few years the levy of fees must continue to be suspended, as it is at present, for all exceptionally backward races.

Practical Education.

A question has been raised by some of the witnesses, whether the course of instruction generally in cess-schools might not be more practical. It is urged that the influence of the University course vibrates throughout the whole system of education, and gives even to the primary school-course a direction, which is not adapted to the wants either of a rural or of a commercial society. Examined more critically, this assertion resolves itself into a complaint that the shop-keeper requires to learn book-keeping, the better classes the forms of letter-writing and composition, and the peasantry a greater knowledge of the law of debtor and creditor and the uses of manure and various forms of agriculture. In a general way these objects must be and are kept in view in the compilation of the school text books and in the standards. Thus with reference to a complaint which has been made that the Bombay system "does not produce men of business," that "it is impossible for a native banker to recruit his staff from the young men turned out by our colleges and schools," that "our State-system does not yield an adequate supply of youths with either a capacity or a taste for the industries and avocations conducted

on the native system" we have to observe as follows. The witnesses examined by us were selected chiefly with a view to giving expression to any criticisms from outside, which might be directed against the Department. On one point they are unanimous, *viz.*, that no subject is taught in an indigenous school which is not taught in a Government school. They are almost unanimous also in saying, that the special subjects taught in indigenous schools are better taught in the Government schools. We invite the particular attention of the Commission to the system of native accounts taught throughout the curriculum* prescribed for Gujaráthi schools. Until the memorial of the shroffs and native bankers was presented to the Commission on October 31st in Bombay not one of the 38 witnesses, whose examination-in-chief had been received and printed, had alluded to the deterioration of business-abilities, which the Bombay system is alleged to have caused. Even the memorial itself proves too much. If there is now felt an increasing difficulty in recruiting native banks, it is clear that the State-schools are not alone to blame. The part which the State-schools fill in supplying the City of Bombay with educated talent is but a small fraction of the whole supply. The Pársi and Hindu private schools are large, and several missionary and benevolent societies are competing to secure for their pupils a share in the public demand for commercial service. The memorial complains that that service is badly supplied, and the blame must be shared not merely by the State-schools, but also by the aided schools, and by the private schools, which, receiving no assistance from the Department, are free to develop in response to the public demand. We have made inquiries in other great centres of Bombay besides the presidency town, and we have not heard the complaint repeated in those centres. The evidence on this point will be laid before the Commission. How then can the language used in the memorial of the Bombay bankers be explained? We account for it as follows. There has been an enormous expansion of trade and commerce in Bombay. The public service makes increasing demands on the outturn of our schools. The demand has increased the cost of the article required, and part of the complaint is due to the difficulty of obtaining the same talent at the old rates of salary. Although the influence affects unaided schools in a less decree, still we have already expressed the opinion, that the matriculation examination casts its shadow over primary education. We consider that a middle-class examination, conducted by the University as a separate test from the present matriculation examination, would give a more practical direction to the whole aim of education. This alteration would, in our opinion, effect considerable improvement, but it is an alteration which Government cannot carry out without the co-operation of the University. At page 48 we pointed out that the University only consented in 1879 to introduce a change in their examination, which Mr. Peile and his successor had pressed upon their attention for ten years. We believe that the Syndicate are fully alive to the responsibilities of the power which they wield, and we may confidently expect their support. But even with the change we propose, it cannot be expected that the public school should teach technical knowledge, which a well trained mind can rapidly acquire behind the counter. It is out of the question that national schools should consult minutely the specialities of every class. Meanwhile it is satisfactory to note that our Government schools command the popular confidence. Certain facts tell their own story. The cess-schools are crowded, the constant cry is for more. Their highest standards of education (which, if the complaint be true, are the most ambitious and unpractical of all) are so increasingly sought for, that 400 per cent. more pupils pass under them now than ten years ago. In the towns we consider that a strictly commercial and technical education may be left to private enterprise aided by the State. A special demand will create a special supply; and the fact, that our primary schools are as full as they can be, and patronized by the classes who best discern their own interests, points to the conclusion, that the system is on the whole suited to the wants of society. Still, in the rural villages, we think that greater attention may be shown to the local wants of each district. The text-books in all schools should aim at attracting the attention of beginners to the familiar subjects by which the boys are every day surrounded. In forest-districts useful lessons on trees, minerals and forest-produce, the value of

* *See* Mr. Chatfield's letter, No. 2930, dated September 3rd, 1881, already before the Commission.

conservancy and the objects of forest-laws, as well as accounts of wild animals should be taught: along the coast, lessons on the sea, ships and commerce; and in the Deccan plain, on crops, horse and cattle-breeding, the main principles of famine-relief, the destruction of locusts, the best remedies for cattle-disease, and similar subjects would interest and draw out the observation of the young, and afford a valuable means of instructing them in matters with which their daily life is associated. Pictures and models would illustrate the text and secure attention. We are aware that some progress is actually being made in the direction which we advocate, and that the department is constantly availing itself of any improved books, which may be introduced with success in mission-schools. But much still remains to be done: famine-relief and forest conservancy are after all modern inventions, and constant alterations of the law, especially such Acts as the Deccan Agriculturist Relief Act, require revisions of existing books. Even where information is now given, as on the Act to which we have referred, it could be incorporated in a series of pleasant stories taken from facts which would attract the interest of children. Such lessons must not be exclusively written by the schoolmaster or Inspector. They will require the aid of the practical administrator. We attach the greatest importance to this condition. There is no reason why a lesson on cattle-disease, horse-shows, or forest-produce should not contain the most precise and accurate information. On these important subjects Government attempt to disseminate knowledge by resolutions and proclamations, but no better vehicle for conveying practical information can be devised than the village school-book. It seems, therefore, desirable that to its compilation should contribute not merely the professional teacher, but the professional district-officer, the veterinary surgeon and the practical man of business in every department of life. The very form in which a few legal instruments are now introduced into the books is rather repulsive than attractive. Geography being an unpopular subject might be removed from its present position in the curriculum and placed in Standard IV where it should be confined to the geography of the district. The difficult fractional multiplication-tables, such as the Savâyaki and Autki, now used in the 1st Standard, should be discontinued, although it must be admitted that these tables were originally introduced as a concession to the popular sentiment on the subject of practical education. The written character should receive at least as much attention as the printed character. This is attended to with marked success in some divisions, but the practice should be more uniformly followed in every district. In history also we consider that an improved text-book is required. Dr. Hunter's short text-book of Indian History is far preferable to the books now prescribed, and there is some advantage in having a text-book which is taught throughout India. But the size of the book prevents any attempt to describe in pleasant detail any particular period of history. In this Presidency, even a history of India ought to contain a fuller account of the Marátha dynasty than would interest a Bengal school-boy. By illustrating in particular and pleasant detail periods of history which are especially interesting to certain provinces, by introducing lessons on surrounding objects with which the eyes and experience of the pupils are already familiar, by explaining by short stories the operation of special laws or administrative measures that are designed for the people's benefit, by removing geography to the IV Standard, and by reducing the fractional multiplication-tables, we think that a sufficiently practical turn will be given to primary education. Mr. Hope's series of Books affords an admirable instance of what school-books should be, but events have not stood still since they were written. On the other hand, the Maráthi Series requires and is about to receive a thorough revision. The introduction of moral lessons into the course of instruction should also be noticed here, though the subject will be discussed in a later section.

Fees.

As regards fees we have no large alterations to propose. They are already sufficiently low for the cess-payers, and are wholly remitted in the case of aboriginal and very poor classes. But there is a class of agriculturist labourers, who being landless contribute no cess and yet assist in raising the crops from which the cess is paid. Their claim to instruction at the same rate as the cess-payer deserves notice, but as the local boards or committees have full power to regulate the fees we would only suggest that their claim is one which deserves consideration.

Trained masters.

Some witnesses have complained that the number of trained masters is insufficient. It was suggested by Professor Bhandárkar that every large vernacular school should have a normal class attached to it. We are unable to support this suggestion. In England 30 per cent. of the masters are technically untrained men, and yet they are considered highly efficient. In Bombay, if we exclude the branch-schools attached to primary schools, no less than 65 per cent. of the head masters of primary schools are trained men. Including the masters of these branch schools, who receive less than Rs. 10 per mensem and only teach the lowest standards, the proportion of trained head masters in the whole Presidency is 45 per cent. There are normal schools in the four provinces of Bombay—at Hyderabad, Ahmedabad, Poona and Dhárwár, and these schools are capable of turning out as many masters as there are places to fill. Even if masters are required for indigenous rural schools on the system which we have advocated, we believe that the pupils who fail to pass the normal school examination will be sufficient to supply the demand without recourse to a system which would involve a varying standard and training in a number of different schools.

Scholarships.

The absence of scholarships in primary schools has been remarked upon. So far as the cess-schools are concerned, the admission of free students seems to us to meet the want. Perhaps it would be desirable to increase the number of entrance-scholarships tenable in middle-class schools by boys leaving primary schools, and poverty should be an indispensable condition for holding them. But otherwise we see no necessity for creating scholarships in cess primary schools. In the case of indigenous rural schools, where we have already stated our objections to interference with the fees charged, it might be desirable to provide scholarships for poor boys. The local committees should have the power to admit free to such institutions ten per cent. of the attendance, and the payment to the indigenous master of the free students' fees would be the best form of scholarship.

Grants by results.

The present grants-in-aid to primary schools for results have been condemned as illiberal. We have shown in the remarks on indigenous schools that an indigenous or privately managed school obtaining the same results as were obtained in a departmental school at the last examination would have received Rs. 281-8 out of a net cost of Rs. 449. But the fees in Government schools are both low, and are also remitted in numerous cases. If the fees were raised to the scale charged in indigenous schools, and no exemptions permitted, the net expenditure of the school we selected would not have exceeded Rs. 320. A grant can hardly be called illiberal which is sufficient to pay 88 per cent. of the net expenditure of a school. We are, however, told that in some schools managed by corporate bodies no fees are charged. 'If no fees had been charged in the school we selected, its net cost would have been Rs. 892 as we have ascertained from the acounts of its free-receipts. Even then a grant of Rs. 283-8 would have amounted to 31 per cent. of its expenditure. It seems to us to be an exaggerated view of the duty of the State to hold that it is bound to assist a school which will not assist itself but gives gratuitous instruction. We believe that under the present rules an efficient primary school can earn at least one-third of its gross expenditure. But as a great many indigenous and privately-managed schools are not efficient, we have recommended that the grants by results be raised 20 per cent. for boys' schools, and doubled for girls' schools. If this is done we can see no ground for complaint. We also think that no limit should be put on the extension of assistance under the system of grants-in-aid by results. No question should be asked about a school's permanency, or its religious teaching, nor need any inquiry be made as to whether it is a source or profit. If its secular results tested by an examination entitle it to a particular grant, the grant should be given. The results prove that the school has performed a certain function, and the funds provided for education in that area should be bound to recognize those results and reward them. We may allude here to a remark which has been made, that Inspectors apply to aided schools a more severe test than they do to Government schools. As a matter of fact when the standards of examination for primary schools were first introduced, special orders

were issued to the Inspectors to pitch their standard lower in aided than in cess-schools. We have no reason to doubt that these orders have been complied with, and we believe that the imputation of severity is untrue.

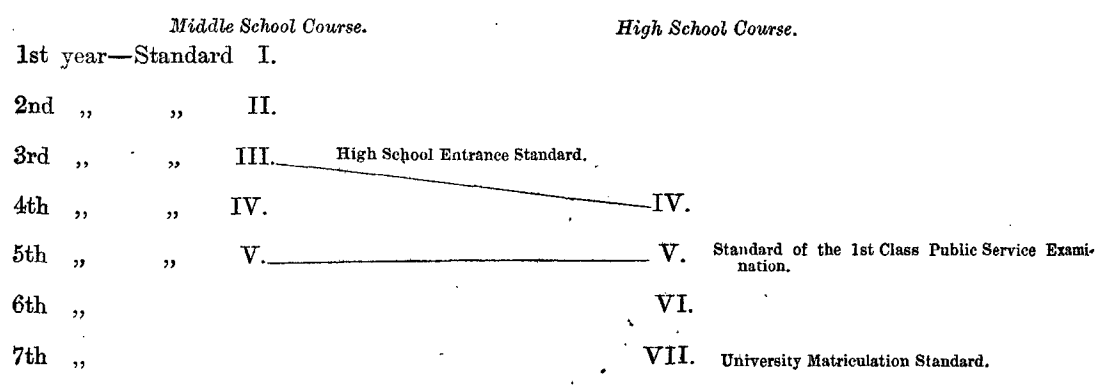
Muhammadans.

One of the witnesses before the Commission has complained that Muhammadan boys are not taught the Hindustáni language at the cess-school. We have shown that on March 31st, there were 99 Hindustáni schools established, which were teaching 6,798 pupils. We have also shown in the preface to this chapter that the bulk of the Muhammadans in the Presidency speak the vernacular of the district. It has hitherto been the practice of the local fund committees to open a Hindustáni class wherever 15 boys, who require it, can be assembled. We doubt if anything more can be justly claimed by the Muhammadan community; but as the distribution of cess-schools will now pass entirely into the hands of municipal and local boards, it will be necessary that these bodies, which will be entirely or almost entirely Hindu, should continue to watch and meet as far as possible the special wants of the scattered Musalmán population.

SECTION C.—*Secondary Instruction : Middle and High Schools.*

Definition.

1. As defined by their curriculum, all secondary schools in the Bombay Presidency are institutions which teach English *pari passu* with the pupil's vernacular. They are thus distinguished from primary schools, in which no English is taught, and from the University Colleges in which the vernacular finds no place. Middle schools are distinguished from high schools by their employing the vernacular as the sole medium of instruction; while in the high schools the medium of instruction is exclusively English throughout. In middle schools, again, the study of languages is confined to English and the vernacular; in high schools a third language (Sanskrit, Persian or Latin) is added to the curriculum. The course of study in both classes of schools has been framed with a two-fold object in view, *viz.*, qualification for the lower grades of the public service and for a University career. The curriculum of a student proceeding to college is three years in the middle school, followed by four years in the high school. But a pupil merely wishes to qualify for the public service has three courses open to him. He can either remain for five years in a middle school and prepare for the 1st class public service certificate examination, or, leaving the middle school at the end of the third year, proceed for two years to a high school and prepare for the same examination. Whether he qualifies or not at this examination, he is left the option of studying in a high school for two years more and presenting himself at the matriculation examination, the *Certamur* which is a somewhat better passport to the public service than the 1st class certificate just alluded to. The extent and co-relation of the courses of study in middle and high schools are further illustrated by the following diagram :—



Extent of secondary instruction.

2. The total number of secondary institutions on the 31st of March last was 247 and they were attended by 19,988 scholars. Of these 247 institutions, 206 were middle schools, attended by 14,257 scholars; and 41 were high schools in which the number of pupils was 5,731. The three tables which follow show the distribution of these schools by districts and of the scholars by age and by race or caste :—

TABLE I.—*Distribution of Secondary Schools by Districts.*

Districts.	Middle.			High.			Total.		
	Number of schools.	Number of scholars.	Average number of scholars in each school.	Number of schools.	Number of scholars.	Average number of scholars in each school.	Number of schools.	Number of scholars.	Average number of scholars in each school.
British Territory.									
Sind	21	1,550	73·81	6	561	93·5	27	2,111	78·18
Gujarath	19	2,129	112·05	6	1,033	172·16	25	3,162	126·48
Konkan and Deccan. — Island of Bombay	25	3,467	138·68	7	1,593	227·55	32	5,060	158·12
Konkan and Deccan. — Poona	10	889	88·9	4	519	129·75	14	1,408	100·57
Konkan and Deccan. — Other towns	39	2,020	51·79	7	640	91·43	46	2,660	57·82
Southern Marátha Country	50	1,735	34·7	4	563	140·75	54	2,298	42·55
Aden	1	64	64·	...	...	...	1	64	64·
Native States.									
Gujarath and Cutch	20	1,494	74·7	6	519	86·5	26	2,013	77·42
Deccan and Southern Marátha Country	21	909	43·29	1	303	303	22	1,212	55·09
TOTAL	206	14,257	69·21	41	5,731	139·78	247	19,988	80·92

TABLE II.—*Distribution of the Scholars by Age.*

Division of the Presidency.	Middle Schools.							High Schools.						
	Total number of scholars on the rolls on March 31st 1882.	Number of scholars under 11 years of age.	Percentage.	Number of scholars between 11 and 13 years of age.	Percentage.	Number of scholars above 13 years of age.	Percentage.	Total number of scholars on the rolls on March 31st 1882.	Number of scholars under 13 years of age.	Percentage.	Number of scholars between 13 and 16 years of age.	Percentage.	Number of scholars above 16 years of age.	Percentage.
British Territory	11,854	1,496	12·62	4,635	39·10	5,723	48·28	4,909	249	5·07	2,021	41·17	2,639	53·76
Native States	2,403	125	5·20	1,061	44·15	1,217	50·65	822	15	1·82	124	15·09	683	83·09
TOTAL	14,257	1,621	11·37	5,696	39·95	6,940	48·68	5,731	264	4·61	2,145	37·43	3,322	57·96

TABLE III.—*Distribution of the Scholars by Race or Caste.*

Race or Caste.	Middle Schools.				High Schools.				Total for Secondary Schools.	
	British Territory.		Native States.		British Territory.		Native States.			
	Number of scholars.	Percentage on total number of scholars in middle schools.	Number of schools.	Percentage on total number of scholars in middle schools.	Number of scholars.	Percentage on total number of scholars in high schools.	Number of scholars.	Percentage on total number of scholars in high schools.	Number of scholars.	Percentage on total number of scholars in secondary schools.
Christians	1,429	12·06	3	·13	111	2·26	2	·24	1,545	7·73
Brâhmans	3,639	30·70	1,365	56·80	1,978	40·29	510	62·04	7,492	37·48
Other Hindus — Cultivators	624	5·26	65	2·70	140	2·85	17	2·07	846	4·23
Other Hindus — Low Castes	17	·14	16	·67	...	...	...	...	33	·17
Other Hindus — Other Castes	3,823	32·25	837	34·83	1,573	32·04	198	24·09	6,431	32·18
Muhammadans	687	5·80	94	3·91	100	2·04	18	2·19	899	4·50
Pársis	1,526	12·87	23	·96	965	19·66	76	9·25	2,590	12·96
Aboriginal and Hill tribes	6	·05	...	...	...	...	...	...	6	·03
Others (including Jews, &c.)	103	·87	...	...	42	·86	1	·12	146	·72
TOTAL	11,854	...	2,403	...	4,909	...	822	...	19,988	...

Government, aided and unaided schools.

3. The distribution of secondary schools under these heads is shown in the following table:—

Classes of Institutions.	Middle.				High.			
	Schools.	Scholars.	Increase or decrease per cent. since 1880-81.		Schools.	Scholars.	Increase or decrease per cent. since 1880-81.	
			Schools.	Scholars.			Schools.	Scholars.
British Territory.								
Government — 42 1st Grade	5,264		+ 5·	10·24	19	3,601	...	+19·28
Government — 86 2nd Grade	2,305		+ 7·5	23·65				
Aided	30	3,780	+20·	2·32	14*	1,226	+ 7·69	— 3·92
Unaided and Inspected	7	505	+16·66	·40	1	82	— 1·00	— 5·75
Native States.								
Inspected schools	41	2,403	— 6·82	12·98	7	822	...	+35·87
TOTAL	206	14,257	+ 1·47	+4·98	41	5,731	...	+14·92

* Besides these there were the following unaided and uninspected high and middle schools:—

High and Middle Schools.

	Number of pupils.
Fort High School, Bombay	672
Alfred High School, Bombay	(Not obtainable.)
Bombay Private English School	127
Fort Proprietary School, Bombay	490
Chandanvádi High School, Bombay	283
Indian High School, Bombay	117
New English High School, Poona	573

Middle Schools.

Gokaldás Tejpál Vidyálaya (for Gujaráti Hindus), Bombay	325
Mr. Mancherji's School, Gowáliá Tank, Bombay	103
Fort Imperial School	25

The education of the sons of Native Chiefs.

The foundation of the Rájkumár Colleges at Rájkot and Kolhápur has already been referred to. In addition to these, two other special institutions have lately been opened for the sons of Native Chiefs and large landed proprietors, *viz.*, the Girásiá school at Wadhwán, Gujarath, and the Tálukdári School at Sádrá in the same province. The number of pupils attending these several institutions at the end of the year was:—

Rájkumár College, Rájkot	34
Rájárám College, Kolhápur	10
Girásiá School, Wadhwán	30
Tálukdári School, Sádrá	17
TOTAL	91

A considerable number of the Jáhághírdárs and other native gentlemen of rank send their sons to the ordinary Government schools; but the progress and behaviour of all such pupils are specially noted in the head master's annual reports; and any points demanding the attention of the parents or of the Political Agents are duly brought to notice by the Educational Inspector of the District. The education of all minors, who are wards of the district-courts, is similarly supervised by the Inspectors.

The education of Muhammadans.

In a few of the middle schools 20 per cent. of the Muhammadan pupils are admitted as free students. In the other middle schools and in all the high schools Muhammadans enjoy no special privilege in regard to the cost of their tuition. Musalmán teachers of Persian and Hindustáni have however been specially entertained in most of the secondary schools for the instruction of Muhammadan pupils. In the Elphinstone High School at Bombay there are four Musalmán teachers employed to teach Persian; and in almost every high school there is at least one teacher of this language. Besides this the department last year secured the services of two Muhammadan graduates as special Inspectors of Muhammadan education, and they have already proved useful exponents of the wants of their own community. The assistants which the department renders to the composite primary and middle schools established by the Anjumán-i-Islám, in the city of Bombay, has already been mentioned. At present the Educational Department contributes Rs. 6,000 per annum in support of the Anjumán-i-Islám's institution.* No special provisions for the education of Muhammadans have been made in any other aided or inspected institutions.

The education of agriculturists.

No special measures have been adopted in middle schools for the education of the sons of agriculturists or peasants. But children of this class are encouraged by stipendiary scholarships of Rs. 4 per mensem to attend the high school model-farms for instruction in practical agriculture.

Subjects of Instruction.

4. The subjects of instruction are set forth in the following schedule, from which it will be observed that the curriculum includes a voluntary course of instruction in drawing, and in the theory and practice of Indian agriculture. Instruction in elementary mechanics, astronomy and chemistry is also given in every high school throughout the Presidency, the teaching being largely experimental and not confined to mere book-work. The drawing-classes exist only in Government schools; but the pupils of private schools are encouraged to attend them. In the Government high schools the study of a classical language, side by side with English and the Vernacular, is compulsory; but pupils are given the option of choosing Sanskrit, Persian or Latin. The compulsory rule regarding the study of a classic moreover is relaxed in a student's last year, if he elects to matriculate simply with a view to entering the public service; though as a matter of fact, very few students avail themselves of this privilege, but prefer to continue their classical studies to the end of their school-course.

* The Bombay Municipality have also voted Rs. 5,000 to the society in aid of any primary schools which may be established for Muhammadan children.

Maximum of Marks given at Examinations.

STANDARD FOR MIDDLE SCHOOLS.*

Standard I (Succeeding Vernacular Standard IV).

1st Head.—Arithmetic.

100 Arithmetic of Vernacular Standard IV (see page 90) with harder examples.

2nd Head.—Vernacular.

60 (*a*) Reading the whole of the 5th Book of the Departmental Series, with explanation of the part read, and of the meaning of words. 100 lines of the Poetry to be repeated. Parsing. The Grammar of Vernacular Standard V. Easy question in Etymology.

40 (*b*) Writing to dictation, in fair Devanagari, five lines of the book read: full writing-book to be shown (Modi small-hand).

3rd Head.—History and Geography.

50 (*a*) Outlines of Indian History, with dates of chief events.

50 (*b*) Elementary general knowledge of the Geography of Asia, General, Physical, and Political Geography of India, including mountains, rivers, lakes, and seas; boundaries, capitals, and chief cities.

4th Head.—English.

50 (*a*) Reading the First Departmental Reading-Book, or any similar book, with oral translation into Vernacular. The meaning to be understood.

25 (*b*) Spelling 5 words in the book read. Maráthi equivalents to be written.

25 (*c*) Writing easy words in large hand. Filled copy-book to be shown.

Standard II.

1st Head.—Arithmetic.

100 Add to the Arithmetic of Standard I Practice and Simple Interest.

2nd Head.—Vernacular.

60 (*a*) Reading the whole of the Sixth Book of the Departmental Series, with explanation of the part read and of the meaning of words, &c. 100 lines of the Poetry to be repeated. The Grammar of Vernacular Standard VI except Syntax.

40 (*b*) Writing to dictation in fair Devanagari, 5 lines from the book read. Modi writing-book to be shown.

3rd Head.—History and Geography.

50 (*a*) Revision of Standard I and the History of India to the Battle of Panipat, 1761.

50 (*b*) Revision of Standard I, with more detailed knowledge of Asia and India. Elementary knowledge of the geography of the world with the principal, natural, and political divisions; and the situation of all capital cities.

4th Head.—English.

40 (*a*) Reading the Second Departmental Reading-Book, or any similar book, with oral translation into Vernacular, giving meaning of words, and distinguising Parts of Speech. The meaning to be understood.

20 (*b*) Writing large hand. Filled copy-book to be shown.

40 (*c*) Written translation into English of five short and easy sentences from the Second Book. Spelling to be considered.

Standard III. (To be passed before entering a High School.)

1st Head.—Arithmetic.

100 Add to the Arithmetic of Standard II Decimals, Compound Proportion, and Discount.

2nd Head—Vernacular.

40 (*a*) Reading with explanation 100 pages of a standard Vernacular prose author, and 150 verses of Raghunáth Pandit, or a similar Poet. 100 lines of Poetry by heart. Grammar of Vernacular Standard VI. Prayogs as in a large Grammar.

20 (*b*) Writing five lines in good Devanagari to dictation from the book read. Full writing-book to be shown (good current hand).

40 (*c*) Written translation of five lines from the English Reading-Book,

* The optional subjects taught in middle schools are given on pages 117–119.

Maximum of Marks given at Examinations.

3rd Head.—History and Geography.

50 (*a*) Revision of Standards I and II and the History of India to the departure of Lord Dalhousie, 1856.

50 (*b*) Revision of previous Standards. Map of India to be drawn from memory, with political divisions to illustrate the History.

4th Head.—English.

40 (*a*) Reading the Third Departmental Reading-Book or any similar book, with *vivâ voce* Explanation in Vernacular and simple parsing in English.

20 (*b*) Writing text or fair small hand. Full writing-book to be shown.

40 (*c*) Written translation into English of five short sentences from the Third Vernacular Book. Spelling to be taken into account.

N. B.—Some middle schools also teach the IV and V Standards which follow:—

STANDARDS FOR HIGH SCHOOLS.*

Standard IV. (First Standard of the High School Course).

(Questions and Answers to be in English.)

1st Head.—Mathematics—

Add to the Arithmetic of Standard III—

60 (*a*) Profit and Loss. Compound Interest.

40 (*b*) Euclid, Book I, 26 Propositions.

2nd Head.—Vernacular and Classical Languages.

Vernacular—

50 (*a*) 150 pages from a Standard Vernacular Prose Author and 200 lines of Poetry of Wáman or Moropant or similar Poet (not learned previously) with special regard to Maráthi Grammar and Idiom (comparison with Sanskrit and English Grammar and Idiom). 100 lines of Poetry by heart. Rules of Sandhi. Declensions and Conjugations as in a large Grammar.

50 (*b*) Written Translation into Maráthi (Devanagari) of about five lines in any school reading-book used below Standard V at the option of the Examiner—spelling and writing to be considered; or composing a letter (Modi).

Classics.

I. Sanskrit.

40 (*a*) The common rules of Sandhi, the declensions of nouns, substantive, and adjective, given in the 1st Book of Sanskrit, (7th edition), and the special tenses of roots of the 1st, 4th and 6th classes.

60 (*b*) *Vivâ voce* Translation into the Vernacular of the Sanskrit exercises in Lessons I—XXVII of the 1st Book of Sanskrit, and written translation into Sanskrit of the English exercises in the same lessons.

Or *II. Latin.*

60 (*a*) *Vivâ voce* Translation of Exercises equal in difficulty and amount to the first 30 in Henry's First Latin Book (English into Latin, and Latin into English).

40 (*b*) The Regular Declensions and Conjugations to be said by heart.

Or *III. Persian.*

100 *Vivâ voce* Translation of the first fifteen Stories of the Hikáyat-i-Latif with dictation from the first five Stories.

3rd Head.—History and Geography.

50 (*a*) Revision of the History of India. Outlines of the History of England with dates of chief events.

50 (*b*) Elementary general knowledge of Geography of Europe with more detailed knowledge of the British Isles. Revision of Geography of Asia and India.

4th Head.—English.

40 (*a*) Reading from easy English Classics, 80 pages of Prose, and 350 lines of Poetry, with explanation in Vernacular of the part read, parsing, and easy Etymology in English, and explanation of difficult words in English. Poetry, 100 lines by heart.

20 (*b*) Writing five lines to Dictation from the book read. Full copy-book, fair small hand, to be shown.

* The optional subjects taught in high schools are given on pages 117—119.

Maximum of Marks given at Examinations.

40 (*c*) Written Translation into English of five lines from the Third Book of the Vernacular Series. Spelling to be taken into account.

Standard V.

(Qualifies for a First Class Certificate for entrance to the Lower Grades of the Public Service.)

1st Head.—Mathematics.

Add to the subjects of Standard IV—

40 (*a*) Square and Cube Root.

30 (*b*) Euclid, Book I.

30 (*c*) Algebra, four Rules Integral.

2nd Head.—Vernacular and Classical Languages.

Vernacular.

50 (*a*) A Standard Vernacular Prose author not previously read (about 250 pages) and 300 lines from Kekávali or similar work, with special regard to a scholarly knowledge of Maráthi Grammar and Idiom (comparison with Sanskrit and English Grammar and Idiom). Syntax as in a large Grammar. Half the Poetry by heart.

50 (*b*) Written translation of 10 lines from the book read into Vernacular. Composing a report on a given subject (Modi). Writing to be considered.

Classics.

I. Sanskrit.

40 (*a*) Rules of Sandhi, continued; declension of pronouns and pronominal adjectives; the special tenses of the roots of the remaining classes.

60 (*b*) *Vivá voce* Translation into English of the Sanskrit exercises in the remaining lessons of the 1st Book and in Lessons I—XII of the 2nd Book of Sanskrit (4th edition) and written translation into Sanskrit of the English exercises in the same lessons.

Or *II. Latin.*

60 (*a*) *Vivá voce* Translation of Henry's First Latin Book, or a similar book. Easy Prose passage, as in the Delectus, to be selected by the Master. Parsing of simple sentences.

40 (*b*) Accidence complete.

Or *III. Persian.*

100 *Vivá voce* Translation of the Hikáyat-i-Latif and of the Karimá, with dictation from the Hikáyat-i-Latif. Written translation into Persian of any six easy sentences.

3rd Head.—History and Geography.

50 (*a*) Revision of the History of India, and the History of England to the year 1485.

50 (*b*) Revision of previous Standards. Map of any country of Asia to be drawn from memory, boundaries, mountains, and rivers, and cities being marked, and in the case of India, Political divisions, and lines of latitude and longitude. General Geography of America, Africa, and Oceania, with special knowledge of British Foreign Possessions.

4th Head.—English.

40 (*a*) Reading English Classics, 100 pages of Prose and 450 lines of Poetry—200 by heart—with explanation and parsing. Easy questions in Analysis of Sentences, as in Morell, Part I, and Etymology.

30 (*b*) Written translation of a passage from the 4th Maráthi Book or from any easy narrative in the Vernacular. Specimens of writing, as in fair note-books, to be shown.

30 (*c*) Writing an English letter, private or official, or making an abstract in English of an easy story, clearly read or told.

N. B.—(1) In Government Independent Anglo-Vernacular Schools, a Standard History of India may be read instead of the English Classics, and should be illustrated and brought down to the latest date by lectures delivered by the head master. Less time may also be given to the Classics, and more to the Vernacular.

(2) Candidates for the Public Service Examination (First Class Certificate) will be examined in the "Sanitary Primer" published by Government. Certificates will not be issued to candidates who pass in other subjects, but fail in the "Sanitary Primer." This Primer is to be taught in every Government School having a class learning Standard V.

Maximum of Marks given at Examinations.

Standard VI.

1st Head.—Mathematics.

Add to the subjects of Standard V—

40 (*a*) Mensuration.

40 (*b*) *Euclid*—Books I, II, with Simple deductions.

30 (*c*) *Algebra*—Fractions, Greatest Common Measure, Least Common Multiple, Simple Equations, and Square Root.

2nd Head.—Vernacular and Classical Languages.

Vernacular.

50 (*a*) Revision of previous reading, and Dnyáneshwari Adhyáya XII and XIII with special regard to a scholarly knowledge of Maráthi Grammar and Idiom (comparison with Sanskrit and English Grammar and Idiom), Etymology and Prosody.

50 (*b*) Translation into Maráthi (Devanagari) of ten lines of the English Poetry read. Spelling and wrting to be considered.

Classic.

I. Sanskrit.

40 (*a*) The rare and irregular declensions; comparison of adjectives; numerals; the perfect; the two futures and the conditional; (Dr. Kielhorn's Grammar, 2nd edition, Sections 1—330; 368—379); compound nouns.

60 (*b*) Translation into English of the Sanskrit exercises in Lessons XIII—XIX and Lesson XXIV, Part I., of the 2nd Book of Sanskrit, and of about 25 pages from the Third Book or from the Hitopadesa, and written translation into Sanskrit of the English exercises in the same lessons, and of about ten short English fables.

Or *II. Latin.*

60 (*a*) *Vivâ voce* Translation of Cornelius Nepos (30 pages), with Grammar and Parsing.

40 (*b*) Written Translation of six lines of easy narrative chosen by the Inspector.

Or *III. Persian.*

100 Thirty lessons of the Sad Hikáyat and the first Chapter of the Gulistán, with dictation from the same. Written Translation into Persian of six lines of easy English Prose.

3rd Head.—History and Geography.

50 (*a*) The History of England to Treaty of Paris, 1856. Revision of previous Standards.

50 (*b*) Detailed Physical and Political Geography of England. Map-drawing from memory to illustrate History. An outline map of the British Isles or any country of Europe to be drawn from memory, and the boundaries, mountain-ranges, rivers, and cities to be marked.

4th Head.—English.

40 (*a*) Reading English Classics, 125 pages of prose and 550 lines of poetry (different authors from those under Standard V): 200 lines by heart. Questions in Grammar, Analysis, and Etymology.

30 (*b*) Written Translation into English of 5 lines of Maráthi prose or poetry. Specimens of Writing, as in fair note-books, to be shown.

30 (*c*) A short Theme on a simple subject.

Standard VII., Matriculation.

The Inspector may examine in Mathematics, History, and Geography by dictating one example or a set of questions to be worked before him on slates by a whole class simultaneously.

The examinations under high school standards will be conducted in English, except where it is otherwise specified in the standards.

Schools will not be required to present boys in both the vernacular and the classic under Head 2. They may obtain the full grant under that Head for the Vernacular only, and an extra grant of like amount for the Classics, if offered.

The whole amount of the reading-books appointed in the Anglo-Vernacular Standards need not be required, if the Inspector is satisfied that the amount offered is, considering the manner in which it has been prepared, a sufficient year's work.

PROVISIONAL PROGRAMME OF STUDY FOR THE AGRICULTURAL CLASSES ATTACHED TO HIGH SCHOOLS.

Students entering the agricultural classes must be learning a high school standard (*i.e.*, one of Standards IV—VII).

At the end of the first year the students will be examined in the subjects mentioned below :—

First Year's Course.

1. Chemistry. Preparation and properties of Oxygen, Hydrogen and Nitrogen. Carbon, its varieties and properties. Carbonic Anhydride, its preparation and properties. The Chemistry of air and water. Combustion.

2. The Introductory Science Primer No. 1 by Huxley.

3. Elementary Physics. Science Primer No. 3 by Balfour Stewart to the end of page 105 (*i.e.*, omitting Electricity).

4. Agriculture by Tanner (Science Primer Series).

Those students only who pass a satisfactory examination* will be permitted to enter on the second year's course.

At the end of the second year the students will be examined in the course specified below. No student will be permitted to appear for the examination who has not passed under the Anglo-Vernacular Standard V., before the Public Service Examination Committee :—

Second Year's Course.

1. Chemistry. Science Primer No. 2 by Roscoe.

2. Physics. The whole of Science Primer No. 3.

3. Agriculture. † Manual by Mr. Robertson.

4. Botany. Science Primer by Hooker. (Johnston's Botanical Diagrams should also be studied.)

5. Physical Geography by Professor Geikie, Science Primer No. 4.

6. Geology by Professor Geikie, Science Primer No. 5.

7. Voluntary subjects in which students may obtain additional certificates :—

(1). Land-surveying.
(2). Physiology (Huxley's).
(3). Botany. (The exact course will be specified hereafter.)

Students who pass the examination will obtain certificates, and an additional certificate will be given for each of the voluntary subjects.

Note—

(1). Classes will be formed in December of each year, and the examinations will be held in December.

(2). Boys taking up the Agricultural Course will be excused the Classical language, and, after obtaining a First Class Public Service Certificate, will be excused History and Geopraphy lessons.

(3). Boys who pass in the examination for the second year of the Agricultural Class will be eligible for admission to the College of Science, Poona, in the lower or non-University Class.

(4). The Principal of the College of Science will supply papers for the Annual Examination, and will class the pupils of the several schools in one list according to merit.

(5). Revenue Officers in filling up appointments for which boys, who have passed Anglo-Vernacular Standard V, (Public Service Certificate First Class), or Anglo-Vernacular Standard VII (Matriculation), are eligible, are invited to give a preference to boys holding the Second Year Hig-School Agricultural Certificate.

PROVISIONAL RULES FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF ELEMENTARY DRAWING.

1. Government having sanctioned the teaching of Elementary Drawing concurrently with General Education in Primary, Middle and High Schools, the course of instruction is to be designated "First Grade Art."

2. The subjects forming the course are—

A.—Freehand-Drawing.
B.—Model and Object-Drawing.
C.—Practical Geometry.

A.—First Grade Freehand-Drawing.

By freehand-drawing is meant drawing without the aid of any kind of mechanical means of execution, such as ruling, measuring or tracing, or the use of anything but pencil, paper (or slates) and India-rubber.

The examples used should be characterized by simplicity and beauty of outline, and should be the subject of a flower, leaf, fruit, or some simple object with which the pupils are acquainted.

B.—First Grade Model-Drawing.

By model-drawing is meant drawing in outline from some simple object arranged so that the pupils may have to draw both curved and straight lines. Indian pottery, brass utensils, Surat toys, form admirable examples for this subject.

C.—Practical Geometry.

This stage is intended to teach elementary notions of Practical Geometry and the use of simple drawing-instruments.

3. Not less than two lessons a week, of one hour's duration each, must be given.

* No candidate is examined, who has not attended at least 60 field-lectures at a model-farm

† Until Mr. Robertson's work is ready, Wrightson's Agriculture may be used.

4. Schools in which drawing is taught will be examined once a year, and a prize will be given to every boy or girl who passes the standard of excellence in the First Grade.

5. A certain number of Art-Teachers qualified to teach drawing in the First Grade will be appointed on salaries of Rs. 40 and 50 per mensem.

6. Candidates desirous of qualifying to give instruction in elementary drawing must hold a Second-Grade Art-Certificate.

7. The subjects comprised in the Second-Grade course are—

(*a*) Freehand-drawing from flat examples.
(*b*) Freehand-drawing from models.
(*c*) Practical geometry.
(*d*) Linear perspective.
(*e*) Delineation of diagrams on the blackboard.

8. Candidates for Second-Grade Art-Certificates will be examined at the Annual Examination of the School of Art in April, and must be prepared to—

(*a*) Draw, in a given time, an example in outline from the flat.
(*b*) Sketch in outline a group of models placed by the Examiner.
(*c*) Solve on paper questions in geometry, showing a knowledge of (1) the construction of single figures, (2) and the combination of figures up to figure 105 of Burchett's Geometry.
(*d*) Solve questions in perspective, showing the use of vanishing and measuring points used in the horizontal plane and to represent simple solids on the ground plane in any position.
(*e*) Instruct a class in the presence of the Examiners by an example drawn on the blackboard.

9. A Candidate must send up the following works, four in number, as specimens of workmanship, and they must be approved before he can be admitted to the Annual Examination:—

(*a*) A sheet of freehand outline-drawing.
(*b*) A drawing from a group of models in outline.
(*c*) A sheet of not less than six geometrical problems with written description.
(*d*) A perspective diagram.

The above works must be executed on Imperial sheets of paper.

10. Each Candidate must pay a fee of Rs. 5 before he can be admitted to the examination.

11. Schoolmasters and Pupil-teachers in Middle Class Schools who hold Second-Grade Art-Certificates, and who teach drawing in their own schools, shall receive an annual Grant of Rs. (100) one hundred, and one rupee for every boy or girl who passes the standard of excellence in the First Grade.

12. Schoolmasters and Pupil-teachers residing in Bombay can attend the early morning classes at the School of Art to qualify themselves for the Second-Grade Art-Certificates by paying the usual school-fees.

13. Art-Teachers, who already have been appointed to Drawing-Classes, are requested to prepare themselves and send up the required number of works for the Second-Grade Art-Certificate.

Number of Pupils learning languages.

The number of pupils studying each of the languages taught in Secondary Schools was as follows:—

	Middle-Schools.					High-Schools.				
	Government.	Aided.	Inspected.	Native States.	Total.	Government.	Aided.	Inspected.	Native States.	Total.
Sindhi	863	236	26	...	1,125	...	...	...	...	...
Gujaráthi	817	194	...	...	1,011	453	...	...	...	453
Maráthi	2,444	959	130	590	4,123	376	439	80	...	895
Kánarese	1,149	278	...	56	1,483	164	118	...	171	453
Hindustani	83	143	...	...	226	...	17	...	...	17
Persian	69	34	20	...	123	1,236	372	3	63	1,674
Sanskrit	110	38	9	205	362	1,700	261	64	424	2,449
Latin	1	174	8	...	183	207	132	...	...	339
Portuguese	...	...	...	...	...	1	3	...	...	4
Hebrew	...	15	...	...	15	10	...	...	...	10
Arabic	...	...	...	...	...	8	...	...	...	8
Total	5,536	2,071	193	859	8,651	4,155	1,342	147	658	6,302

Text-books.

The Chief Text-Books used in the Secondary Schools are given in the following classisfied List:—

ENGLISH READING-BOOKS.

(Prose and Verse.)

Middle Schools.

Howard's Primer.
" Second Reading-Book, Part I } lately revised.
" Second Reading-Book, Part II }
" Third Reading-Book.
St. Xavier's School Series, Parts I—III.
Christians Vernacular Society's Series. I—III.
Nelson's Royal Readers, Parts I—III.
Howard's First Book of Poetry.

High Schools.

Chamber's Moral Class-Book.
Nelson's Royal Readers, Parts IV to VI.
Day's Sandford and Merton (abridged).
Evenings at Home (abridged).
Edgeworth's Moral Tales.
Lamb's Tales from Shakespeare.
Defoe's History of the Plague (abridged).
Robinson Crusoe (abridged).
Æsop's Fables.
Gulliver's Travels (abridged).
Paul and Virginia.
The Swiss Family Robinson (abridged).
Chamber's Exemplary Biography.
The Children's Friend.
Washington Irving's Life of Columbus (abridged).
Washington Irving's Sketch Book.
Southey's Life of Nelson.
Smiles's Self-help.
The Arabian Nights (abridged).
The Pilgrim's Progress. } in Aided Schools.
The Holy Bible. }
Johnson's Rasselas.
Selections from the Spectator.
Goldsmith's Vicar of Wakefield.
Select Novels of Sir Walter Scott and Miss Austen.
Select Essays of Lord Macaulay.
Selections from Johnson's Lives of the Poets.
Pope's Homer's Iliad.
Macaulay's Lays of Ancient Rome.
Selections from Palgrave's Golden Treasury and other Anthologies.
Selections from Cowper's Poems.
" " Scott's "
" " Wordsworth's Poems.
Goldsmith's Deserted Village and Traveller.
Thomson's Seasons.
Gray's Elegy.
Milton's Paradise Lost and Samson Agonistes.
Shakespeare's Julius Cæsar.
" Merchant of Venice and other select plays.

English Grammar.

Middle Schools.

Howard's Rudimentary Grammar.
Christian Vernacular Society's First Book of Grammar.

High Schools.

Ernest Adam's Elementary English Grammar.
Ernest Adam's Elements of the English Language.
Dr. Morris's Grammar Primer.
Howard's larger Grammar.
Dr. W. Smith's English Grammar.
Morell's Analysis of Sentences.
Macmordie's Studies in English.

VERNACULAR LANGUAGES.

SINDHI.

Middle and High Schools.

Pako Pali.
Rai Diach.
Kamsen.
Umar Marwi.
Saifal Maluk Æsop's Fables.

GUJARÁTHI.

Middle and High Schools.

Departmental Reading-Books, Parts V-VII, by the Honourable T. C. Hope, C.S.I.
Páthmálá, Parts I-VII; A Series of Anglo-Gujaráthi Exercises for translation. Bálmitra, Part I.
Life of Columbus translated by Pránlál.
Kávya Sankshep, or Selections from the Poets of Gujaráth.
Kavitá Sangraha: a Gujaráthi Anthology, compiled by the Honourable T. C. Hope, C.S.I.
Nalákhyán, edited by Kavi Narmadá Shankar.
Nala Damayanti.
Hunnar Khanani Chadhai.
Gujaráthi Grammar by the Honourable T. C. Hope, C.S.I.
" " by R. S. Mahipatrám Ruprám.
" " by Rev. J. S. Taylor.
Vyutpatti Prakásh, or a Manual of Gujaráthi Etymology.

MARÁTHI.

Middle and High Schools.

Departmental Reading-Books, Parts III to VI, compiled by Major T. Candy.
Life of Socrates, by Mr. Krishna Shastri Chiplunkar.
Hindusthán Katháras; or Beauties of Indian History, compiled by Mr. V. K. Oke.
Madhumakshiká or the Bee, compiled by Mr. V. K. Oke.
Life of Peter the Great,
" " Alexander the Great,
" " Duke of Wellington,
History of the French Revolution,
Readings in Biography.
} Compiled by Mr. V. K. Oke.
Irving's Life of Columbus, translated by Mr. Kolatkar.
Robinson Crusoe, translated by Mr. R. S. Godbole.
Æsop's Fables.
Sandford and Merton, translated by Mr. G. S. S. Bapat.
Paul and Virginia " " "
Elizabeth or the Exiles of Siberia " "
Gadya Ratnávali " " "
Panchatantrasár " " "
Rasselas
Venisanhára Nátak, translated from the Sanskrit by Mr. P. B. Godbole.
Uttararámacharita " " "
Padya Ratnávali " " "
Navanit: an Anthology, revised by Mr. R. S. Godbole.
Kádambarisár, abridged by Mr. P. B. Godbole.
Dnyáneshwari " " "
Anglo-Maráthi Exercises for translation, Parts I-III. by Mr. D. R. Tarkhadkar.
Idiomatic Sentences, English and Maráthi, compiled by Major T. Candy.
Maráthi Grammar by Ráo Báhádur Dádobá Pándurang.
" " abridged by " "
" " by Mr. Krishna S. Godbole.
" " by Mr. Ganpatráo R. Navalkar.
Shabda Siddhinibandha, a Treatise on Etymology by Messrs. A'gáshe and A'thavale.
Vritta Darpana, a Treatise on Prosody, by Mr. P. B. Godbole.

KÁNARESE.

Middle and High Schools.

Departmental Reading-Books III to VI.
" 2nd Book of Poetry.
Jaimini Bhárata: An old Poem.

Prakkanyamála: an Anthology by Rev. G. Wurth.
Raja Shekhara: an old Poem, annotated by Mr. G. M. Turmuri.
Katha Sangraha: Prose Selections, Parts I-VI.
Panchatantra.
Æsop's Fables.
Arabian Nights.
Chamber's Moral Class-book.
Grammar of the ancient Kánarese dialect.
Outlines of Kánarese Grammar, by Mr. V. R. Katti.
Shabdamani Darpan, Grammar, edited by Rev. F. Kittel.
Shabdasidhi Nibandha, a Treatise on Etymology by Ráo Sáheb P. V. Chintámanipethkar.

Hindustáni.

Middle and High Schools.

Departmental Hindustáni Book, Part I.
" " Book, Part II.
" " Book, Part III.
Fasani Ajnayalin.
Bagho Bahar.
Nakut Yasuf.
Jamin-ul-Hikáyat.
Akhuluki Hindi.
Fawaid-i-Azy-zia.
Mujmua-i-Sakhun.
Aklaha Kosi.
Zubdatul Kawaid.

CLASSICAL LANGUAGES.

Sanskrit.

High Schools.

1st Book of Sanskrit by Professor Bhándárkar.
2nd Book of Sanskrit by Professor Bhándárkar.
3rd Book of Sanskrit by Mr. Edwin Bühler.
Hitopadesh by Mr. Edwin Arnold.
Panchatantra.
Raghuvansha.
Nalopákhyáan.
Rijupáth.
Kumár Sambhava.
Shriharsha's Ratnávali.
Veni Sanhár Nátak.
Kálidas's Shakuntala.
Dashakumár Charita, Part I, by Dr. Bühler.
Sanskrit Exercises by Monier Williams.
Dr. Kielhorn's Grammar.
Gadya Padyávali, or Student's Guide to Sanskrit composition.
Dhátu Rup-Kosha.

Latin.

High Schools.

Dr. W. Smith's Principia Latina, Parts I—IV.
Young's Delectus.
Henry's First Latin Book.
Dr. Schultz's Exercises for Translation.
Arnold's Introduction to Latin Prose Composition, Part I.
Latin Grammar by Rev. G. A. Jacob, D.D.
" " elementary " " "
" " by Dr. William Smith.
" " by Dr. Schultz.
Cornelius Nepos.
Cæsar's Gallic War.
Sallust.
Cicero's De Senectute and De Amicitiâ.
Selections from Livy.

Persian.

High Schools.

Gulistán of Shaik Saadi.
Sad Hikáyat of Abdul Fatah.

Selections from Akalke Mahsani.
Hikáyat Latif.
Persian Series, Part I.
Amadáh Námáh.
Sorabshaw's 1st Persian Book.
Sorabshaw's 2nd Persian Book.
Maulvi Ashreef Ali's 1st Book.
Tashri-ul-Hurup 1st Book.
Allahabad Mission, 2nd Book, Parts I and II.
Mufidut Talbin.
Agaz Farsi.
Hátimtái.
Bostan of Shaik Saadi.
Pandanáma.
Ashráful Kawánin.
Sorabshaw's Grammar.
Maulvi Ashruf Ali's Grammar.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

Middle Schools.

Morris's History of India (Vernacular Versions).
A Manual of Indian History compiled by Ráo Sáheb Mahipatrám Ruprám.
" " " by Mr. V. K. Oke.
" " Geography by Ráo Sáheb S. V. Patvardhan.

High Schools.

Morris's History of India.
Manuals of Indian History by Messrs. Lethbridge, Pope, Sinclair, Morell, Meadows Taylor and B. R. Sahsrabuddhe.
Manuals of English History by Miss Edith Thompson and Messrs. Curtis, Collier, Smith, Freeman, Davey and Gardiner.
Little Arthur's History of England.
Tytler's Ancient History.
Christian Vernacular Society's Ancient History.
" " " History of Rome.
Peile's Outlines of Universal History.
Manuals of Geography by Messrs. Reid, Mackey Lewis, and Cornwell, Geikie, Sullivan, Blanford and Hughes.

MATHEMATICS.

Middle Schools.

Professor Keru Lakshman's Arithmetic and other Vernacular treatises.

High Schools.

Manuals of Arithmetic by Colenso, Barnard Smith, Hamblin Smith, Todhunter, Cornwell and Fitch, and Gray.
The Elements of Euclid edited by Potts, Todhunter, and Hamblin Smith.
Todhunter's Treatise on Mensuration.

PHYSICAL SCIENCE, &c.

High Schools.

Professor Balfour Stewart's Physics and other Primers in Macmillan's Series.
Professor Theodore Cooke's Natural Philosophy.
" " " Mechanics.
" Samuel Cooke's First Principles of Chemistry.
" " " First Principles of Astronomy.
Dr. Cunningham's Sanitary Primers.
Tanner's Agricultaral Primer.

Examinations.

5. The Inspector's examinations of middle schools and of the three lower forms of high schools are regulated by the standards of instruction described in the last section. The two tables which follow show the number of pupils who passed in all heads of each standard and the total number who passed separately in mathematics, languages and history and geography. Of the 15,483·18 scholars in average attendance 11,317 or 73·09 per cent. were presented for examination, and of these 5,448 or 48·12 per cent. passed in all the subjects in which they were examined. The results of the 1st class public service certificate examination and of the matriculation examination of the University are shown in General Form 4 in Chapter IV of this report:—

EXAMINATION-RESULTS IN 1881-82.

TABLE I.—*Middle and High Schools.*

CLASS OF INSTITUTIONS.		Total number of pupils in average attendance.	Total number of pupils examined.	NUMBER PASSED IN						Total number passed.	Percentage on number examined.	Ratio between the number passed and the number in average daily attendance.
				Standard I.	Standard II.	Standard III.	Standard IV.	Standard V.	Standard VI.			
Middle-Class Schools	Government	5,852·64	4,831	1,600	796	595	60	17	...	2,468	51·09	·42
	Aided	3,058·2	1,666	...	Details.		Incomplete.			755	45·32	·24
	Inspected	2,077·7	1,548	374	280	176	40	16	8	894	57·75	·43
High Schools	Government	2,832·59	2,417	86	87	81	355	240	220	1,069	44·22	·37
	Aided	926·35	517	...	Details.		Incomplete.			126	24·37	·14
	Inspected	735·7	338	...	...	22	55	34	25	136	37·28	·18
	TOTAL	15,483·18	11,317	1,460	1,163	874	510	307	253	5,448	48·12	·35

TABLE II.

CLASS OF INSTITUTIONS.		Standards.	Total number of pupils examined.	NUMBER PASSED IN					
				Mathematics.	Vernacular.	History and Geography.	English.	Classics.	Sanitary Primar.
Middle-Class Schools.	Government	I to V.	4,831	3,910	3,666	3,357	2,903	28	...
	Aided	I to V.	1,666	1,318	1,149	939	1,125	10	...
	Inspected	I to VI.	1,548	1,170	1,039	1,139	1,069	54	...
High-Schools	Government	I to VI.	2,417	1,745	1,668	1,664	1,666	1,058	96
	Aided	IV to VI.	517	291	199	246	275	164	...
	Inspected	III to VI.	338	238	270	234	206	141	38
	TOTAL		11,317	8,672	7,991	7,579	7,244	1,455	134

School Libraries and Apparatus.

6. Every secondary school has a library containing English and Oriental works; and every head master receives a small annual allowance to enable him to keep his library up to date. The library of a middle school seldom contains less than 700 volumes. The libraries of the high schools are somewhat larger. The extent of the high school libraries in the Central Division is shown in the following table:—

	Number of Volumes.	Total value Rupees.
Elphinstone High School	1,547	3,000
Poona do. do.	658	1,004
Sátára do. do.	1,150	2,962
Sholápur do. do.	664	1,117
Thána do. do.	583	1,028
Ratnágiri do. do.	1,543	3,500

All the libraries have been catalogued; and in each of the high schools one of the assistant masters officiates as librarian and issues books at stated hours. In the larger schools the number of books issued in the year is rarely less than 500. The pupils are allowed daily access to the dictionaries and other books of reference, which lie on the library-table; and the senior boys are permitted to take a limited number of volumes to their own houses. Secondary schools are furnished with all necessary apparatus of instruction, such as wall-maps, globes, &c., and every high school has also an ample collection of philosophical apparatus. Several of the schools possess a well-fitted laboratory, in which the students are required to work out chemical and other experiments in the teacher's presence. The apparatus consists in most schools of a telescope (with a $3\frac{1}{4}$-inch object-glass), a microscope, gyroscope, orrery, magic lantern (with astronomical slides), electric

machine, air-pump, &c., and a large assortment of meteorological and chemical instruments. The apparatus in the Elphinstone and Poona high schools cost Rs. 1,500 and Rs. 1,300 respectively; in the other high schools it cost on the average Rs. 800. A few of the secondary schools have museums of natural history.

School accommodation.

7. With a few exceptions, the school-buildings are excellent. They are on healthy and in most instances open sites; and the class-rooms allow over 20 square feet to each pupil and are well lighted and ventilated. Some of the school houses, as at Poona and Sátára are old Marátha palaces; but most of them have been specially built for the schools by the Public Works Department. Those at Karáchi, Rájkot, Surat, Bombay and Kolápur are very handsome and spacious structures. Every school is amply supplied with all requisite furniture, that in the Presidency school being constructed after the most approved models in England and Germany. When in their class-rooms the scholars do not sit on the ground, as is the custom in the primary schools, but are accommodated with benches and desks.

Registration of attendance.

8. Every class has a separate attendance-roll which is called twice daily by the assistant master in charge. In Government schools an abstract of the attendance is daily seen by the head master; and at the end of the month the rolls are examined and countersigned by him. They are also examined by the Educational Inspector at the time of his annual visit to the schools, and are at any time open to his inspection.

The average number of hours a week devoted to instruction in middle and high schools is 28. Middle schools are open for 243 days in the year, high schools for 239 days. The holidays are distributed over the year as follows: 44 days in the hot season (April to June); 14 days at Diváli (October—November): 8 days at Christmas; Sundays and miscellaneous holidays 60 days.

Teaching-power.

9. The two statements which follow show the number, proportion and pay of all the masters employed in Government secondary schools. The head masterships of the high schools are filled by Native gentlemen who are graduates of the Bombay University. The principalship and vice-principalship of the Elphinstone high schools are held by English gentlemen. The head masters of the middle schools are either University men or officers who have distinguished themselves in other appointments as able and energetic teachers. The assistant masters of secondary schools are all men who have received a liberal education in our high schools or colleges; and as a body they are highly efficient officers. No special college exhists for the training of teachers for secondary institutions. Hitherto the department has relied on the University and upon special institutions like the College of Science at Poona and the Sir Jamsetji Jijibhái School of Art, for the supply of fit men. But all new employés as a rule are required to serve for a year or more in the Elphinstone, Poona or other large high schools, in order that they may learn their duties under the eye of the most experienced head masters in the Presidency. In point of fact therefore the first grade high schools discharge the functions of secondary training colleges; and the experience of the last 15 years appears to prove that this economical system meets all the requirements of the smaller secondary schools without weakening the teaching staff of any of the larger institutions.

All teachers in Government secondary schools are in receipt of pensionable salaries and are eligible for promotion to most of the higher appointments in the department. They have also not unfrequently been selected for promotion to posts in other departments of the public service.

Our returns for aided secondary institutions are incomplete. Most of the European superintendents of the schools supported by the missionary societies have omitted to state their own salaries; but as far as our information goes the highest salary paid to the head master of an aided high school is Rs. 600 per mensem. In one institution the head master receives only Rs. 100 per month.

The maximum pay drawn by an assistant master is Rs. 125 per month. The minimum cannot be stated, as the masters of ancillary vernacular departments have been included in the salary returns.

In aided and inspected middle-class schools the maximum pay of the head master is Rs. 125 and that of an assistant master Rs. 60.

No special provision has been made for the training of teachers in secondary aided schools; but we observe that in most of these institutions the upper masters are University men, and that a large proportion of those teachers who have had no University training are men of long standing and experience.

The proportion of pupils in average attendance allotted to each teacher in aided high and middle schools is 23 and 13 respectively.

TABLE I.—*Analysis of the teaching power of Middle and High Schools.*

Class of Institution.	Number of Schools.	Personnel.			University Standing of Personnel.			
		Total number of head masters, assistant and special teachers including English teachers in 2nd grade Anglo-Vernacular Schools.	Total number of Assistants and English teachers.	Total number of special teachers of languages, agriculture, drawing, &c.	University Graduates.	F.E.A.'s.	Matriculates.	Number of teachers (chiefly of special subjects) without University standing.
Government Middle-Class Schools. 1st Grade.	42	169	131	11	2	14	105	48
Government Middle-Class Schools. 2nd Grade.	86	86	86	...	...	...	39	47
Government High Schools.	19	193	127	46	60	30	65	38
Total	147	448	344	57	62	44	209	133

TABLE II.

Rank of Teachers.	Number of Employés.	Government High Schools.			Average number of pupils to each teacher of each denomination.	Government Middle Schools.						Average number of pupils to each teacher of each denomination.
						1st Grade.			2nd Grade.			
		Maximum pay.	Minimum pay.	Mean pay.		Maximum pay.	Minimum pay.	Mean pay.	Maximum pay.	Minimum pay.	Mean pay.	
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs. As.		Rs.	Rs.	Rs. As.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. As.	
Head Masters	47	800	125	462 8	141·63	150	25	87 8	...	...	...	156·94
Masters	86	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	50	15	32 8	18·08
Assistant Masters	258	150	30	90 0	22·30	75	15	45 0	...	...	...	31·39
Special Teachers	57	150	10	80 0	61·58	40	15	27 8	...	...	...	112·

10. The total expenditure on secondary education was Rs. 7,35,872 or 24·97 per cent. of the whole sum expended on education. The expenditure was distributed among secondary institutions as follows :—

Expenditure.

Class of Institutions.		Number of Schools.	From Provincial Funds.	From Local Resources.	Percentage of Provincial on Total expenditure in each class of Institutions.
			Rs.	Rs.	
Government	Middle Schools	128	83,038	93,917	46·92
	High do.	19	1,49,816	1,17,235	56·10
Aided	Middle do.	30	40,620	57,899	41·23
	High do.	14	25,695	37,756	40·49
Total	Middle Schools	158	1,23,658	1,51,816	44·89
	High do.	33	1,75,511	1,54,991	53·10
	Grand Total	191	2,99,169	3,06,807	49·37
Inspected and Native States	Middle Schools	48	2,650*	56,792	4·46
	High do.	8	1,764*	68,690	2·50
	Total	56	4,414	1,25,482	3·39

* Provincial expenditure on Direction and Inspection in Native States.

Deducting the indirect charges for direction and inspection, the total expenditure on the maintenance of Government aided and inspected institutions was as follows :—

Class of Institutions.		Number of Schools.	From Provincial Funds.	From Local Resources.	Percentage of Provincial on Total expenditure in each class of Institutions.
			Rs.	Rs.	
Government	Middle Schools	128	51,383	93,711	35·41
	High do.	19	1,19,681	1,17,070	50·55
Aided	Middle do.	30	36,319	57,796	38·59
	High do.	14	17,087	37,536	31·28
Total	Middle Schools	158	87,702	1,51,507	32·48
	High do.	33	1,36,768	1,54,606	46·94
	Grand total	191	2,24,470	3,06,113	42·31
Inspected and Native States	Middle Schools	48	.....	52,769	.....
	High do.	8	.....	64,779	.....
	Total	56	.....	1,17,548	.....

The above figures speak for themselves. In 1870-71 the direct provincial expenditure on secondary schools was Rs. 1,99,478 or 44 per cent. of their total cost. In 1881-82 provincial funds contributed Rs. 2,24,470 or 42 per cent. of the whole cost, the balance of the expenditure being met from fees and other local resources. When these sums are distributed between Government and aided institutions, we find that the provincial subsidy to Government schools was Rs. 1,69,801 in 1870-71 as against Rs. 1,71,064 (or less than 1 per cent. more) in 1881-82; and that the subsidy to the aided schools was Rs. 29,677 in 1870-71 and Rs. 53,406 or 45 per cent. more in the latter year. It should also be noted that the aided institutions last year received from the State 35 per cent. of their total expenditure, or, in other words, more than one-half of the amount which they spent from their private resources. The Educational Department therefore somewhat exceeded the rule, which has been laid down by the Government of India, *viz.*, that the State-contribution should not be greater than one-half of the amounts contributed from all other sources nor more than one-third of the total expenditure on education in each school concerned.

Cost to Government per scholar.

The total direct cost of instructing each scholar in Government aided and inspected institutions, respectively, and the total direct cost per head to Government is shown in detail in the general table given on page 129. The cost to Government of the instruction of each scholar in Government middle schools was Rs. 7-0-8 against Rs. 6-8-8 in aided middle schools. In Government high schools the cost to Government was Rs. 27-10-9 as against Rs. 15-4-11 in aided high schools. The latter comparison, however, is between two groups of institutions that are not similarly conditioned. The Government high schools are many of them pioneering secondary education in backward districts, where they are necessarily more costly than in advanced cities like Bombay and Poona. The aided schools, on the other hand, are mostly in Bombay, Poona, Ahmedabad, and Surat. In Bombay, indeed, where the largest and most efficient aided secondary schools are situated, and where also 56 per cent. of the pupils in all of such schools are being instructed, the Government contributed considerably more per scholar to the aided schools than to its own institutions. In the former the average cost to Government last year was Rs. 8-1-6 a head, while in the latter it was only Rs. 5-3-3. In point of efficiency also the Government institution continued to maintain its superiority, though it will be seen from the statistics given below, that the aided schools have made a considerable advance during the last three years:—

Class of Institution.	Number of Pupils on the Rolls on 31st March 1882 (including Ancillary Departments).	Number of Pupils who matriculated at the Bombay University in the year.										Total.
		1871.	1872.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	
Government High School at Bombay .	2,130	34	42	55	29	42	31	33	41	50	53	39	419
Aided High Schools at Bombay .	2,238	14	24	21	15	36	11	8	19	38	40	35	261

At Poona each scholar in the aided secondary schools last year cost Government Rs. 7-0-5 as against Rs. 18-5-0 in the Government secondary school. But against the higher cost of the latter institution must be set its superior efficiency, which, as gauged by the University examination, was more than equivalent for the additional expenditure incurred by Government. This is proved by the fact that in 1881 the Government high school matriculated at the University nearly eight times as many pupils as the aided schools; while in the preceding 10 years the proportion was as five to one.

In Gujaráth the aided schools cost the Government last year Rs. 15-10-0 per scholar as against Rs. 27-2-0 in Government institutions. But here again the greater cost incurred by Government in the State school simply represents so much more efficiency. So far, therefore, as the larger cities are concerned, the present difference in the cost to Government between aided and State-institutions is not a point to which any importance should be attached. Aided secondary schools, on the whole, cost Government less, because the majority of them have not yet attained a high standard of efficiency. In the State schools, on the other hand, the cost of each scholar to Government has been steadily decreasing year by year as the schools have enlarged their classes and economised their teaching power.* As therefore the management of the aided school becomes more efficient and that of the State school more economical, the difference in the cost to Government per head must wholly disappear; unless, indeed, the grant-in-aid schedule of rates is considerably cut down. Under the present scale of grants, the aided schools at the Presidency-town have entirely reversed the old inequality of cost; and there seems to be no reason to doubt that the aided schools in other towns will achieve similar results at no distant date.

* The number of pupils studying the high-school standards only in the Elphinstone School at Bombay is at present not far short of 1,000.

Return of Expenditure on Secondary Educational Establishments in the Bombay Presidency for the official year 1881-82.

Object of Expenditure.	Government Institutions.								Aided Institutions.								Unaided Institutions under regular Inspection.							Total Expenditure.			Grand Total.	Percentage on Total Expenditure.	Average Annual Cost of educating each pupil in									
																													Government Institutions.				Aided Institutions.				Unaided Institutions.	
	Provincial Revenues.	Local Rates or Cesses.	Municipal Grants.	Fees.	Subscriptions.	Endowments.	Other Sources.	Total.	Provincial Revenues.	Local Rates or Cesses.	Municipal Grants.	Fees.	Subscriptions.	Endowments.	Other Sources.	Total.	Revenues of Native States.	Endowments.	Subscriptions.	Fees.	Municipal Grants.	Other Sources.	Total.	Provincial Revenues.	Other Sources controlled by Government Officers.	Other Sources not controlled by Government officers.			Total Cost.	Cost to Provincial Revenues.	Cost to Local rates and Cesses.	Cost to Municipalities.	Total Cost.	Cost to Provincial Revenues.	Cost to Local Rates and Cesses.	Cost to Municipalities.	Total Cost.	Cost to Municipalities.
1	2*a*	2*b*	2*c*	2*d*	2*e*	2*f*	2*g*	2	3*a*	3*b*	3*c*	3*d*	3*e*	3*f*	3*g*	3	4*a*	4*b*	4*c*	4*d*	4*e*	4*f*	4	5*a*	5*b*	5*c*	5	6	7*a*	7*b*	7*c*	7*d*	8*a*	8*b*	8*c*	8*d*	9*a*	9*b*
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Schools for General Education.																																					
High Schools for boys . English.	88,898	. .	7,469	84,896	2,828	5,817	82	1,89,990	17,087	....	....	13,204	1,845	3,574	18,913	54,623	44,098	1,200	209	8,813	...	7,212	61,532	1,05,985	1,01,092	99,068	3,06,145	41·61	59 2 4	27 10 9	. . .	2 5 2	48 15 0	15 4 11	. .	....	73 8 11	...
Middle Schools for boys . English	48,414	614	26,786	63,254	949	1,189	.	1,41,205	23,794	....	....	26,429	5,775	8,137	17,394	81,529	38,031	. .	2,602	7,711	...	3,136	51,480	72,208	92,791	1,09,215	2,74,214	37·26	20 8 7	7 0 8	0 1 5	3 14 4	22 6 10	6 8 8	. .	....	20 9 6	...
Schools for Special or Technical Training attached as Departments to General Schools, viz.,																																					
Engineering Schools .	1,522	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	.	1,522	. .	....	....	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	...	. .	. .	1,522	. .	. .	1,522	·21	234 2 5	234 2 5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	....	. .	...
Industrial Schools . .	. .	303	. .	. .	. .	. .	.	303	. .	....	....	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	...	. .	. .	. .	303	. .	303	·04	57 2 9	. .	57 2 9	. .	. .	. .	. .	....	. .	...
Agricultural Classes . } Drawing Classes . . }	9,368	. .	2,220	1,273	141	. .	860	13,862	. .	....	....	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	...	. .	. .	9,368	4,494	. .	13,862	1·88	15 5 3	10 5 9	. .	2 7 3	. .	. .	. .	....	. .	...
Direction . . .	5,843	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	.	5,843	5,085	....	....	. .	. .	. .	. .	5,085	. .	. .	. .	. .	...	1,244	1,244	12,172	. .	. .	12,172	1·65	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	....	. .	...
Inspection . . .	55,947	. .	. .	371	. .	. .	.	56,318	7,824	....	....	323	. .	. .	. .	8,147	7,854	. .	. .	80	...	3,170	11,104	66,941	774	7,854	75,569	10·27	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	....	. .	...
Scholarships . .	8,615	3,257	. .	. .	. .	889	.	12,761	. .	....	....	. .	. .	61	. .	61	2,596	1,105	. .	. .	...	835	4,536	8,615	4,146	4,597	17,358	2·36	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	....	. .	...
Buildings . . .	14,247	7,945	. .	. .	10	. .	.	22,202	12,525	....	....	. .	. .	. .	. .	12,525	. .	. .	. .	. .	...	. .	. .	26,772	7,955	. .	34,727	4·72	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	....	. .	...
Total .	2,32,854	12,119	36,474	1,49,794	3,928	7,895	942	4,44,006	6 315	....	....	39,956	7,620	11,772	36,307	1,61,970	92,579	2,305	2,811	16,604	...	15,597	1,29,896	3,03,583	2,11,555	2,20,734	7,35,872	. .	44 0 3	23 1 4	1 3 2	3 9 1	34 3 9	14 0 3	. .	....	38 14 11	...

Note—The average annual cost of educating each pupil is calculated on the average monthly number of the students enrolled.

11. The rates of the tuition-fees charged are shown in the following table :—

Fees.		Sind.		Northern Division.		Central Division.		North-East Division.		Southern Division.		Average for the Presidency.	
		Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.
		Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Middle Schools	Government	1 0 0	0 4 0	0 12 0	0 4 0	3 0 0	0 8 0	1 0 0	0 8 0	1 0 0	0 4 0	1 5 7	0 5 7
	Aided	1 8 0	0 4 0	Not returned.									
	Inspected	0 8 0	2 0 0			3 0 0	0 2 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 6 0	0 2 3
	Native States	. .	. .	0 4 0	0 1 0								
High Schools	Government	2 0 0	1 0 0	2 0 0	1 0 0	4 0 0	1 8 0	2 0 0	1 0 0	2 0 0	1 8 0	2 6 5	1 3 2
	Aided	3 0 0	1 0 0	Not returned.									
	Inspected	. .	. .			5 0 0	0 8 0	. .	. .	Not returned.	. .	3 2 8	0 9 4
	Native States	. .	. .	1 8 0	0 4 0								

Free Students.

In Government high schools 5 per cent. of the pupils are exempt from the payment of tuition-fees, or, if the head master prefer it, 10 per cent. of the pupils are permitted to pay half the usual rates of fees. The same rules are in force in Government middle schools maintained from provincial funds; but in the inferior middle schools attached to the cess-schools the exemptions usually amount to 20 per cent. of the total number of pupils on the rolls.

The percentage of pupils exempted from the payment of tuition-fees in aided and inspected schools varies considerably in the different provinces. In the Central Division it is as high as 80 per cent. in some high schools; and in the middle schools it varies from 10 to 100 per cent. In the Poona Native Institution last year it was 43 per cent. and the average for all the aided schools of the Central Division was 68 per cent. The number of exemptions in the Native State schools of the Northern Division varied from 10 to 20 per cent.

The fees of Government and Native State schools are credited and accounted for in the way already described in section B, paragraph 12.

Scholarships.

12. There are 12 scholarships in this Presidency which are awarded by the results of a public examination and which are tenable alike in Government and private institutions. These are annually adjudged by the University at the matriculation examination and they are worth from 120 to 250 rupees per annum, the stipend being enjoyable in some instances for three years. Besides the University scholarships, which it will be observed, are only tenable in the affiliated colleges, stipendiary studentships have been instituted in the secondary schools. In most institutions, whether Government or private, the studentships are allotted in the proportion of one to each class in the school, and they are intended, not so much as an encouragement to poor scholars, for whom the free-studentships have been specially provided, but as a stimulus to mental exertion on the part of the whole class. The following table shows the expenditure incurred in providing such studentships, but we must note that the aided and inspected institutions have not submitted to us complete return of the amounts which they spend on this object:—

Class of Institution.	Middle Schools.		High Schools.	
	No. of Studentships.	Annual Value.	No. of Studentships.	Annual Value.
		Rs.		Rs.
Government Institutions	60	2,004	235	7,818
Do. do.	8*	1,920	. . .	. . .
Aided and Inspected Institutions	11	269	90	2,394
Native State Institutions	. . .	. . .	73	3,320
Total .	79	4,193	398	13,532

* These scholarships are tenable for four years in any college affiliated to the Bombay University and are open to all boys who have been for more than three years at any school in Sind, whether Government or private.

Prizes.

Prizes for proficiency and good conduct are awarded in every secondary school. They consist chiefly of books and they are annually distributed to the boys at a public exhibition

held for the purpose. The expenditure incurred on this account last year was R3,527-12-11 which was distributed as follows :—

Class of Institution.	Middle Schools.	High Schools.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Government schools	1,270 3 7	1,545 9 4
Aided and Inspected schools (return incomplete) . .	367 0 0	345 0 0
Native State schools (return incomplete) . . .		
Total .	1,637 3 7	1,890 9 4

Recommendations.

Government high schools.

We have shown that there are 19 Government high schools and 42 first-grade middle schools ancillary to them. The high schools are in the proportion of rather less than one to each Collectorate, the districts of Kaládgi, Kolába, and Panch Maháls being each without a secondary school of this class. We are unanimously of opinion that none of the latter schools could be closed without injury to the interests of the people for whom they were established, and that the withdrawal of the Educational Department from their management is at present impracticable. We give in Section K our reasons for thinking that these collegiate schools cannot safely be transferred to the control of municipal committees; nor would any municipality, so far as we can ascertain, be willing at present to relieve the department of this responsibility. The transfer of the schools to the missonary societies would not only be viewed with strong disfavour by the educated classes of the native community, but is not desired by the missionaries themselves. We know of no other bodies of private persons to whom the schools could be entrusted with any prospect of their being permanently and efficiently maintained. Mr. Apte, the head master of the new English school at Poona, has proposed in his evidence before the Commission that the Government should announce its intention after a given term of years to hand over some of its high schools to the managers of private institutions like his own. None of these schools, however, are managed by corporate bodies, and therefore no guarantee could be given that the schools which might be made over would be permanently maintained.* This appears to us a fatal objection to the proposed transfer. We note, moreover, that Mr. Apte is the only private schoolmaster who advocates this measure, and that he himself would not be prepared to take over any Government school, unless the present grant-in-aid rates were largely enhanced and the Government consented at the commencement to increase the outlay which is at present incurred on the school. These conditions in our opinion render his scheme hopeless; for we have already shown that the present scale of grant is already so liberal that the most efficient schools in the city of Bombay earn a higher subsidy for each pupil than the Government is paying in its own institutions. Speaking generally, we are unanimously of opinion that no transfer of a well-organized system of higher education is possible until a healthy competition has been created, which alone would compel private enterprise to discharge satisfactorily the duties and responsibilities which at present are undertaken by the State.

Government middle schools.

The middle schools stand in a different position; but our recommendations regarding them have been anticipated to some extent by the local-self-government scheme, which transfers them to the control of the municipalities.

The position of the unaided high schools we shall discuss in Section H.

The curriculum.

As regards the curriculum of the secondary schools we have shown that it includes a voluntary course of instruction in drawing, mechanics, chemistry, astronomy, botany, and agriculture, and that the instruction is imparted in the field, laboratory, and

* Several witnesses (Professor Bhándárkar, Mr. Modak, Mr. Pathak, and others) have strongly condemned the proposal of Mr. Apte as premature.

workshop as well as from books. We are therefore of opinion that it is sufficiently practical in its aim; but we would strongly counsel a more complete organization of this course of studies. At present no attempt has been made in the high schools to organize what is called in the English public schools a "Modern side;" nor would it be practicable to organize it without the co-operation of the University. Professor Oxenham's proposal that the present matriculation examination should be re-constituted and made a middle-class examination, and that the University entrance examination should be conducted by the colleges, is worthy of consideration as suggesting a way by which the University might give that increased stimulus to the studies of the "Modern side" which is necessary for their complete organization in the high-school system. If the University should see fit to adopt this suggestion, it would then become possible for the high-schools to devote more attention to the study of the vernacular languages. We are of opinion that such a stimulus is urgently needed; for though the study of the vernaculars is not wholly neglected in the high schools, it has been so far pushed out of its proper position under the present system, that the master-pieces of vernacular authors are but seldom read, and students leave school with an erroneous conception of the achievements of such indigenous literature and of the directions in which it is capable of further development. Mr. Peile, when Director of Public Instruction, wrote:—"The dislike shown by University graduates to writing in their vernacular can only be attributed to the consciousness of an imperfect command of it. I cannot otherwise explain the fact that graduates do not compete for any of the prizes offered for vernacular translations or compositions, prizes of greater money value than the Chancellor's or Arnold's prize at Oxford, or the Smith's or Member's prizes at Cambridge. So curious an apathy, so discouraging a want of patriotism, is inexplicable, if the transfer of English thought to Native idiom were, as it should be, a pleasant exercise, and not, as I fear it is, a tedious and repulsive toil." This reproach has not yet been wholly removed, and the causes of it demand the earnest attention of the University and of the Educational Department.

The training of masters.

The training of masters for secondary schools is at present undertaken by the first-grade high schools; and, as it is very generally admitted to have been successful as well as economical, we would deprecate any change in the existing system.

Fees.

The fees charged in the Government schools are considerably higher than those in aided institutions, and are fully as high as the people are able to pay. They have also been increased relatively to the cost of the schools; and thus the Government secondary schools bear the same relation to private secondary schools in the matter of fees as the primary indigenous schools do to the cess-schools. The Government secondary schools stand in still greater contrast with the aided schools as to exemptions from the payment of fees, the proportion of free-students in the former being only 5 per cent. against an average of over 50 per cent. in the latter institutions. It is clear, therefore, that in the matter of fees and exemptions the Educational Department has gone as far as it is possible for it to go in the encouragement of private enterprise. In one respect, indeed, its rates are too exclusive; for it is a frequent complaint among the Muhammadans, who are mainly dependent for secondary education on the Government high and middle schools that poor boys can seldom gain admission to them; and the complaint appears to be justified by the fact that the number of Muhammadan pupils in middle schools is not 6 per cent. of the total number of pupils on the rolls, while in high schools it is as low as 2 per cent. The hardship complained of will, in our opinion, be removed by raising the rate of free-studentships to 15 per cent. of the total number of pupils on the rolls and reserving two-thirds of them for Muhammadan pupils.

Expenditure.

The Government expenditure on its own secondary schools has been shown in paragraph 10 of this section to be 42 per cent. of their total cost, while the cost to Government per scholar is year by year decreasing. On the other hand, it has been seen that the cost to Government of the aided institutions is steadily increasing; and that in

many instances the State is paying more for the same results in aided schools than in its own institutions. We are of opinion that all possible economy has been observed in the administration of Government secondary schools; and that the aided institutions have received an equitable and far larger share of the State subsidy than is generally supposed.

Government Scholarships.

Several witnesses before the Commission have recommended that the scholarships in Government schools should be increased in number and made tenable in all institutions alike. There appears, however, to be some misconception on this point. These so-called scholarships are reserved almost entirely as rewards for proficiency in class. They, therefore, stand in precisely the same category as the prizes of books which are distributed to the classes and which no one would propose to take away from the Government schools. The real equivalents in this Presidency to the scholarships of Bengal and some other provinces, with which the Bombay scholarships have been confounded, are the *free-studentships*. These, in our opinion, are an amply sufficient encouragement for poor students, and they are much more numerous in aided than in Government institutions. We see no reason, therefore, for abandoning them, either partly or wholly, in favour of a system which, to be equally effective, would involve a very large outlay of State funds.

SECTION D.—*Collegiate Instructions.*

Number of Arts Colleges.

1. There are altogether six Arts Colleges in the Bombay Presidency. Four of these may be said to be under direct Government management, *viz.*, Elphinstone College at Bombay, Deccan College at Poona, the chief city of the Deccan, Gujaráth College at Ahmedabad, the chief city of Gujaráth, and Rájárám College, at Kolhápur, the capital of a Native State and the chief city of the Southern Marátha Country. The two aided colleges are both located in Bombay, *viz.* the Free General Assembly's Institution, established by the Missionaries of the Free Church of Scotland, and St. Xavier's College, established by the Society of Jesus. There is no unaided college in this Presidency, and no college established by Native gentlemen. The Gujaráth and Kolhápur Colleges have been recently established, and teach only up to the standard of the previous examination, which is equivalent to the first year's course at the University. The other four colleges teach up to the M. A. degree, and Elphinstone College and the Free General Assembly's Institution have also sent up candidates to the recently instituted examinations for separate degrees in science.

Number of Pupils.

The number of students attending each of these six institutions in 1881-82 is shown in the following table:—

NAME OF COLLEGE.	4th year or M. A. Class.	3rd year or 2nd B.A. Class.	2nd year or 1st B.A. Class.	1st year or P.E. Class.	Total in 1881-82.	Total in 1870-71.	Increase or Decrease per cent. since 1870-71.
Elphinstone College, Bombay, affiliated to the University in 1860 .	11	21	52	97	181	133	+36
Deccan College, Poona, affiliated 1860.	4	18	34	65	121	82	+47
Free General Assembly's Institution, Bombay, affiliated 1861 . .	...	2	19	43	64	14	+357
St. Xavier's College, Bombay, affiliated 1869.	3	12	17	43	75	33	+127
Gujaráth College, Ahmedabad, affiliated 1879	...	...	...	9	9	35	−288
Rájárám College, Kolhápur, affiliated 1880.	...	...	...	25	25	...	...
TOTAL .	18	53	122	282	475	297	+59

No affiliated college which existed in 1871 is now extinct. The Gujaráth provincial college, which was closed in the year 1872 (see page 54), was re-opened in 1879 and affiliated to the University. It will be seen, however, that this institution is not in a flourishing condition. The two aided colleges at Bombay teach less than one-third of the total number of students at college. But they have considerably improved their position in the last 10 years. The Elphinstone College, with its 181 students, is the largest collegiate institution in the Presidency; although, it may be observed, the college is inconveniently situated in the suburbs of Bombay. Three of the colleges, *viz.*, the Elphinstone, Deccan

and St. Xavier's have accommodation for resident students, of which full use is made.

The social status of the pupils.

2. The race or caste and the social position of the pupils are shown in the two tables that follow :—

TABLE I.—*Distribution by Race or Caste.*

Name of College.	Brahmans.	Kshatris (Rajputs).	Káyasths (Parbhus).	Lingáyats.	Jains.	Trading castes (Banias, Bhatias, &c.).	Cultivators, Kunbis, &c.	Artisans (Sonárs, Sutárs, Lohárs, Darjis, &c.).	Shopkeepers (Ghanchis, Kachhis, Támbolis).	Labourers, Menial Servants, Dhobis, Bhistis, &c.	Low-castes, Mochis, Dheds, Bhangis, Mangs, Nahárs, &c.	Miscellaneous.	Total—Hindus.	Mogals.	Bohras.	Miyan.	Khojas and Memons.	Total—Musalmans.	Europeans.	Indo-Europeans.	Portuguese.	Native Christians.	Total—Christians.	Total—Pársis.	Total—Jews.	GRAND TOTAL.
Elphinstone College	59	10	18	...	...	38	...	2	...	...	...	...	127	...	1	...	5	6	...	...	...	1	1	47	...	118
Deccan College	107	1	3	1	...	1	1	...	...	...	...	...	114	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7	...	121
Free General Assembly's Institution	34	1	...	...	...	6	1	...	...	...	...	...	42	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4	4	16	2	64
St. Xavier's College	15	1	7	...	...	5	1	4	...	...	...	...	23	...	...	...	1	1	3	2	3	1	9	32	...	75
Cujárát College	3	...	1	...	...	1	1	2	...	...	...	...	8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	9
Rájárám College	23	...	...	...	1	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	25	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	25
TOTAL	241	13	29	13	1	51	5	8	...	...	...	...	349	...	1	...	6	7	3	2	3	6	14	108	2	475

TABLE II.—*Distribution by Social position.*

	Sons of Zamindárs.	Sons of persons of property.	Sons of Merchants.	Sons of Professional persons.	Sons of Priests.	Sons of Brokers.	Sons of Government Officials.	Sons of Contractors.	Sons of Money-lenders.	Sons of Clerks of Native States.	Sons of Clerks of Merchants.	Sons of Clerks to private Native gentlemen.	Sons of Government Pensioners.	Sons of Cultivators.	Sons of Petty Traders.	Sons of Sarafs or money changers.	Miscellaneous.	TOTAL.
Elphinstone	2	13	23	23	2	4	51	2	3	22	9	9	10	5	2	1	...	131
Deccan	2	8	7	3	3	...	53	...	2	7	2	3	13	7	2	...	9	121
F. G. A. Institution	...	11	3	5	5	4	24	...	...	...	9	3	...	...	...	...	6	64
St. Xavier's	...	...	9	16	4	1	16	2	...	2	9	1	3	3	1	...	8	75
Gujárát	...	...	1	1	...	...	2	1	1	...	...	...	1	1	1	...	...	9
Rájárám	6	3	...	4	...	...	3	...	...	7	...	...	...	...	2	...	...	25
TOTAL	10	35	43	52	14	9	149	5	6	38	23	16	27	16	8	1	23	475

The first table shows that about 73½ per cent. of our students are Hindus, about 21½ Pársis, 3 per cent. Christians, and only ½ per cent. Musalmáns and ½ per cent Jews. Relatively to their numbers, therefore, the Pársis furnish the largest proportion of students to our colleges, and Christians furnish five times the proportion of the Hindus. The Musalmáns are far behind every other section of the population. Under the major head Hindus, five students appear

under the sub-head of cultivators. There can be no doubt, however, that they belong to the higher castes and are not sons of husbandmen.

The second table furnishes some indication of the general social position of the students in the colleges. The first class, *viz.*, zamindárs, might, perhaps, more accurately be described as inámdárs. They are the holders of lands partially or wholly exempt from payment of land-revenue. But they are not by any means a prosperous class at the present day. It will be seen, too, that 60 per cent. of the students under that head belong to the college established in a Native State. The class which is most numerously represented in this table is that of sons of Government officials who form 31½ per cent. of the total number. And it is to be noted that the proportion of sons of Government servants in Elphinstone College is not greater than in the aided colleges. It may be stated that, as a general rule, the only students who can be said to belong to wealthy families are Pársis and a few of the Gujaráthi Hindus. But the students drawn from the Maráthi-speaking portion of the Hindu community are, as a rule, poor and dependent on scholarships, or on stipends earned for private tuition or on private charity. It is from this class that most of the students in Deccan College and a considerable portion of the Hindu students in Elphinstone College are drawn.

The wealthy classes, properly so called, furnish but a small proportion of the students in our colleges. Speaking roughly, the figures in the second and third columns of the table might be taken as representing the number of students drawn from the wealthy classes. And these figures show that the proportion of students from such classes to the total number of students, whether we take all the colleges together, or only the Government colleges, is not more than one-sixth. The result thus yielded by the table may be taken as substantially accurate.

Results of the University Examinations.

3. The results of the University examinations are set forth in the subjoined table. The figures given in it include ex-students who appeared before the University examiners after having ceased to attend any college. The columns enumerating the number of students sent up include only those who actually presented themselves at the examinations. The candidates for the M.A. degree were fewer last year than usual, the annual average for the preceding ten years being rather more than six, and the number of passes in the proportion of 1 to every 10 of those who had proceeded to the degree of Bachelor of Arts. The B.Sc. degree having only recently been instituted, the number of candidates who have already presented themselves for it, may be taken as an indication that the degree will hereafter attract a considerable number of our University men. Taking the examinations as a whole, we find that out of 505 candidates 148, or about 29 per cent., were successful. This fact appears to indicate that the University has demanded a high standard of proficiency and has been careful to exclude unfit men:—

Results of the higher University Examinations in the year 1881-82.

Names of Colleges.	M. A.		B. A.		1st B. A.		Previous.		B. Sc.		1st B. Sc.		Total.	
	Sent up.	Passed.	Sent up.	Passed.	Sent up.	Passed.	Sent up.	Passed.	Sent up.	Passed.	Sent up.	Passed.	Sent up.	Passed.
Elphinstone	4	1	53	19	38	12	90	25	6	1	2	2	193	60
Deccan	...	...	37	9	28	12	70	14	...	...	...	...	135	35
Free General Assembly's Institution	2	1	16	4	6	2	51	15	1	1	...	...	76	23
St. Xavier's	2	1	19	4	16	8	30	11	...	...	...	...	67	24
Gujarath	...	...	...	...	...	...	22	2	...	...	...	...	22	2
Rájarám	...	...	...	...	...	...	15	4	...	...	...	...	15	4
Total	8	3	125	36	88	34	278	71	7	2	2	2	508	148

The table which follows shows the number of students who at the end of March last were studying Sanskrit, Persian, Greek, Latin and Hebrew:—

Name of College.	Sanskrit.	Latin.	Persian.	Greek.	Hebrew.	Arabic.	Total.
Elphinstone . .	106	18	56	...	1	...	181
Deccan . . .	111	1	9	...	...	...	121
Free General Assembly's Institution . .	35	7	19	1	2	...	64
St. Xavier's . .	17	37	17	...	...	...	71
Gujaráth . . .	7	...	2	...	...	...	9
Rájárám . . .	25	...	...	...	...	...	25
Total .	301	63	103	1	3	...	471

Sanskrit, as might be expected, is the favourite classic with the Hindu students and attracted last year nearly 64 per cent. of the total number of the undergraduates enrolled. Persian is almost exclusively studied by the Pársis. In the Deccan College, where more than 93 per cent. of the students are Bráhmans, Sanskrit is almost the only classic studied. A similar remark applies to the Gujárath and Kolhápur Colleges, in which all the students are Hindus. At St. Xavier's College, Latin is the classic most extensively cultivated. It may also be noted that four of the students at that college are not learning any classical language.

Degrees in Literature and Science.

4. The numbers of students who graduated last year in a literary and in a scientific course have been shown in the preceding paragraph to have been 39 and two respectively. But candidates for the final examination for the B. A. degree are also at liberty to choose natural science as one of their subjects; and from the subjoined table of all the optional subjects selected last year it will be seen that 26 of the examinees chose this subject and that eight of them passed. Strictly speaking, therefore, the number of men who graduated in a purely literary course was 28 and the graduates in a purely or partly scientific course numbered 10. As regards the other optional subjects it should be noted that history and political economy attracted the largest uumber of students, and that a larger proportion of students selected logic and moral philosophy in the Government than in the aided colleges.

Statement showing the Optional subjects selected at the B. A. Examination in 1881-82.

Name of College.	Language and Literature.		History and Political Economy.		Logic and Moral Philosophy.		Mathematics.		Natural Science.		Total.	
	A Sent up.	A Passed.	B Sent up.	B Passed.	C Sent up.	C Passed.	D Sent up.	D Passed.	E Sent up.	E Passed.	Sent up.	Passed.
Elphinstone . .	...	...	26	8	10	4	8	4	14	3	58	19
Deccan . . .	...	...	15	...	11	6	8	2	3	1	37	9
Free General Assembly's Institution	...	...	11	2	1	...	3	1	1	1	16	4

Name of College.	Language and Literature.		History and Political Economy.		Logic and Moral Philosophy.		Mathematics.		Natural Science.		Total.	
	A Sent up.	A Passed.	B Sent up.	B Passed.	C Sent up.	C Passed.	D Sent up.	D Passed.	E Sent up.	E Passed.	Sent up.	Passed.
St. Xavier's .	1	...	1	1	4	...	...	...	8	3	4	4
Gujaráth .	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Rájárám .	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Total .	1	...	53	11	26	10	19	7	26	8	125	36

5. All the Government colleges have libraries. Those at the Elphinstone and Deccan Colleges are of considerable value Rs. 500 per annum being allotted to each of them for the purchase of additional works. The library in the Free General Assembly's College consists chiefly of theological literature, and that in the St. Xavier's College is reserved for the use of the professors. The libraries of the Government colleges are extensively used by the students; but except at Elphinstone, the books taken out by the undergraduates are almost entirely such as have some bearing more or less close on the subjects of their examinations.

Libraries.

6. The Elphinstone College is fairly well equipped with philosophical apparatus. So also are the two aided colleges, each of which lately received a Government grant of Rs. 3,000 for the purpose. The Deccan and Rájárám Colleges are insufficiently provided with such apparatus, and in the Gujaráth College there is apparently none at all. On the whole it would appear that no college is at present completely furnished in the laboratory and lecture-room with the apparatus which is required for imparting adequate instruction in the new science-course.

Apparatus.

7. The income and expenditure of the several colleges are exhibited in the following tables:—

Table I.—*Income.*

Name of College.	Fees.	Endowments.	Dakshina.	Provincial Revenues.	Other sources.	Total.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Elphinstone	17,323	21,656	7,320	45,320	853	92,472
Deccan	6,747	199	3,900	43,159	...	54,005
F. G. A. Institution . .	2,674	1,544	...	3,225	19,135	26,578
St. Xavier's	5,704	...*	...	1,875	4,421	12,000
Gujaráth	1,335	3,665	720	1	3,000	8,721
Rájárám	1,062	270	...	†5,964	...	7,296
Total .	34,845	27,334	11,940	99,544	27,409	2,01,072

* St Xavier's College received a sum of Rs. 425 as interest on an endowment-fund, which has not been included in the official accounts.

† Paid from the revenues of the Kolhápur State.

TABLE II.—*Expenditure.*

NAME OF COLLEGE.	College Staff—Professors, Fellows, &c.	Scholarships.	Library, Laboratory, and Buildings.	Clerks, Sepoys, Contingencies, &c.	TOTAL.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Elphinstone	76,465	9,063	3,634	3,310	92,472
Deccan	46,315	3,424	1,390	2,876	54,005
Free General Assembly's Institution	18,047	1,544	2,833	4,154	26,578
St. Xavier's	8,920	...*	2,000	1,080	12,000
Gujaráth	8,665	...*	...	56	8,721
Rájárám	6,109	270	203	714	7,296
TOTAL	1,64,521	14,301	10,060	12,190	2,01,072

The College Staff.

The teaching-staff of Elphinstone College and the present salaries of the Professors are as follows:—

		Rs. per mensem.
1.	Principal and Professor of History and Political Economy	1,500
2.	Professor of Mathematics	925
3.	Do. Oriental Languages	850
4.	Do. Logic and Moral Philosophy	650
5.	Do. English Literature	750
6.	Do. Persian	500
7.	Do. Biology	440
8.	Do. Chemistry	200
9.	Lecturer on Physics	250
10-13.	Four Dakshiná Fellows, two at Rs. 120 and two at Rs. 60 per mensem	360
14-15.	Two Shástris under the Professor of Oriental Languages	165
16.	Drawing-Master	50
17.	Gymnasium-Master	20
	TOTAL	6,660

The staff of the Free General Assembly's Institution is as follows:—

		Rs. per annum.
1.	Principal and Professor of Logic and Moral Philosophy	4,800
2.	Professor of Physics and Mathematics	4,000
3.	Do. History and Political Economy	4,000
4.	Do. English Literature	4,000
5.	Do. Mathematics and Latin	4,000
6.	Do. Sanskrit	3,000
7.	Do. Persian	840
8.	One Shástri	420
9-10.	Two Fellows	1,560
	TOTAL	26,620
	Per mensem	2,218

* Expenditure not given in the official return.

	Monthly Salary. Rs.
The staff of Deccan College is as follows:—	
1. Principal and Professor of English Literature	1,250
2. Professor of Logic and Moral Philosophy	750
3. Do. Mathematics	550
4. Do. Oriental Languages	500
5. Assistant Professor of Oriental Languages	250
6-9. Four Dakshiná Fellows, one at Rs. 100 and three at Rs. 75 per mensem	325
10-11. Two Shástris under the Professor of Oriental Languages	130
TOTAL	3,755
The staff of St. Xavier's College is as follows:—	
1. Rector and Professor of Mathematics	
2. Professor of Physical Science	
3. Do. of Philosophy and History	
4. Do. of Physics and Mathematics	
5. Do. of English Literature	
6-7. Two Professors of Latin	
8. Professor of Political Economy	
9. Do. of Sanskrit	50
10. Do. of Persian	50
	100
The staff of Gujaráth College is as follows:—	
1. Principal and Professor of English Literature	750
2. Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy	300
3. Professor of Oriental Languages	300
4. Dakshiná Fellow	60
TOTAL	1,410
The staff of Rájárám College is as follows:—	
1. Principal and Professor of English Literature	800
2. Vice-Principal and Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy	350
3. Professor of Oriental Languages	250
4. Lecturer on Physical Science	150
TOTAL	1,550

With regard to these lists one or two explanatory remarks are necessary. The appointments to the chairs Nos. 1 to 5 in Elphinstone College and Nos. 1 to 4 in Deccan College are "graded appointments," and the pay of the incumbent receives periodical increments according to the rules under which the "grade" system has been constituted. The Dakshiná Fellowships in those two Colleges and the Dakshiná Fellowship in Gujaráth College are all paid for out of the Dakshiná Funds controlled by the Department of Public Instruction. Of the Professors in the Free General Assembly's Institution, the holders of the first five appointments in the above list are also expected to perform certain duties as missionaries, apart from their duties as professors, and their salaries are for duties in those capacities as well as for the work which they do in the School-Department. The incumbents of the first eight chairs connected with St. Xavier's College are Jesuit Fathers who receive no regular pay, and who also take part in the instruction given in the school which is ancillary to the college. The professors in the colleges at Ahmedabad and Kolhápur also are in a somewhat similar position. These colleges consist really of one college-class attached to the local high school in each case, and the professors of the college have duties to perform in the high school department of their institution. It will be noticed that the number of instructors in the last two colleges is much smaller than the number of instructors in any of the other colleges whether Government or aided. In explanation of this circumstance it must be remembered that these two colleges only teach up to the standard of the previous examination at the University.

Fellowships.

The Dakshiná fellowships in the Government Colleges were founded in the year 1858 and were originally intended to be instrumental in the development of the vernaculars of the Presidency. This object, however, has been lost sight of and the Dak-

shiná fellows are now employed as assistant tutors under the professors. The junior and senior fellowships are tenable for one year only, but an incumbent of a junior fellowship is eligible for promotion to a senior fellowship and also for re-election as senior fellow.

It will be seen from the first of the tables given in this paragraph that the Government grant to Elphinstone College including the amount under the head of Dakshiná is about 55 per cent. of the total expenses of the college. The endowment founded in memory of Mr. Mountstuart Elphinstone, and the large amount of fees, averaging nearly Rs. 90 per annum per pupil, cover fully 45 per cent. of the total expenditure. In Deccan College, the proportion of expenditure incurred by Government is much larger, being nearly 87 per cent. Considering, however, that the class of the population from which the students of Deccan College are mostly drawn is much poorer than the classes from which the students of Elphinstone College come, the rate and amount of fees is considerable. That college has no regularly constituted endowment such as is possessed by the Elphinstone College. But as we have already shown in our first chapter, the college at Poona was founded by Mr. Mountstuart Elphinstone as the most suitable object on which the British Government could spend a portion of the Dakshiná funds, which had been formerly employed by the Peshwás for the encouragement of ancient Hindu learning. The cost of the Elphinstone and Deccan College buildings was partly defrayed by private munificence. To the former Sir Cowesji Jehangir Readymoney contributed 2 lákhs of rupees, and Sir Jamsetji Jijibhái gave Rs. 1,00,000 to the Deccan College. The Government contribution last year to the Gujaráth College, including the grant from the Dakshiná Fund, was only Rs. 721. The Rájárám College is wholly supported by the Rája of Kolhápur. It thus appears that the total amount which the British Government spends on general collegiate education in this Presidency is a little over Rs. 92,000 or, including the amount of the Dakshiná, a little over Rs. 1,04,000. It will also be observed that the total amount which Government spends on its own colleges is a little over Rs. 88,000 or, including the Dakshiná, a little over Rs. 1,00,000. Those colleges, however, have an income from fees of upwards of Rs. 25,400, from endowments of upwards of Rs. 25,500 and from other sources of a little short of Rs. 4,000. The table also shows that of the grand total of expenditure on general college-education in this Presidency, not including Kolhápur, Government contributes a little less than 55 per cent.

Fees.

8. The rates of fees vary in the different colleges. In Elphinstone College the general rate is Rs. 10 per month for all students and Rs. 5 per month for students holding what are called junior scholarships, *i.e.*, scholarships of less than Rs. 20 a month. In the Free General Assembly's Institution the general rate is Rs. 6 per month. In Deccan College the general rate is Rs. 5 per month, reduced to Rs. 3 in the case of students holding junior scholarships. In the Gujaráth College the rate is Rs. 5 all round; in Rájárám College it is Rs. 5 generally and Rs. 3 for holders of scholarships. In St. Xavier's College the general rate is Rs. 48 per term, but a small number of students is admitted at half that rate, and scholars are excused payment entirely when they are unable to pay the fees. In all these institutions some students are admitted as free scholars. In the Government colleges the students exempted from the payment of fees must not exceed 5 per cent. of the total number of pupils on the rolls. In St. Xavier's College and in the Free General Assembly's Institution there is no fixed limit, and the managers of these Institutions decide each case on its own merits.

The amounts of fees in the purely Government colleges are paid into the treasury and are not subject to the control of the college-authorities. In the Gujaráth College the fees go the trustees of the institution who apply them and the interest of the endowment-fund towards the expenses of the college. In the Rájárám College, the fees are paid into the treasury of the Kolhápur State and are not subject to the control of the college-authorities. In all the colleges therefore, whether Government or aided, it may be said that the fees go to those who defray the expenses of the college; and they may be regarded *pro tanto* as a contribution towards such expenses.

Scholarships.

9. In Elphinstone College there are altogether 45 scholarships with aggregate stipends of Rs. 660 per month. Of these, there are 16 senior scholarships of Rs. 20 per month, 10 junior scholarships of Rs. 15, and 19 of Rs. 10 per month. The money is nominally described as derived from the following funds in the proportions stated, *viz.*:—

Elphinstone Professorship Fund	Rs.	200 per mensem.
Clare Fund	„	250 „
West Fund	„	190 „
Gáikavád Fund	„	20 „

In point of fact however the actual interest on the Clare Fund properly so called is Rs. 1,574 per annum, on the West Fund Rs. 1,146 per annum, and on the Gáikavád Fund Rs. 240 per annum. It appears that in 1834, the West Scholarship Fund was invested in 4 per cent. Government securities. Till that time the fund had borne interest at 6 per cent. and in that year, therefore, on the investment of the money in the 4 per cent. securities, Government resolved to supplement the interest on the fund by an equal contribution of their own at 6 per cent. plus the difference of 2 per cent. which the fund lost by the investment in securities bearing less interest. The Government contribution under these heads was in that year fixed at Rs. 1,124, and this sum, together with the actual interest on the invested amount, has since been treated as the income of the West Fund. A precisely similar arrangement was made regarding the Clare Fund in 1839. What was therefore originally a Government contribution has now become substantially a part of the endowment.

In Deccan College there are eight senior scholarships of Rs. 20 per mensem, eleven junior scholarships of the value of Rs. 10 per mensem, and one of the value of Rs. 5 per mensem, and two of the value of Rs. 4 per mensem. Except these last two, all the other scholarships are paid out of Government funds. All the scholarships are awarded as in Elphinstone College according to the results of a special examination held at the college.

There are 15 scholarships in the Free General Assembly's Institution with aggregate stipends of Rs. 862 per annum. The funds were given by friends of the mission, principally during the time of the late Dr. Wilson. Some of the scholarships are exclusively tenable by Christian students, in accordance with the original intentions of the founders, and others are awarded by competition.

In St. Xavier's College there are two scholarships, one of Rs. 25 per mensem endowed by the Roman Catholic Bishop of Bombay, and tenable by boarders at the college who are unable to continue their studies without some such help; and the other is a scholarship of Rs. 100 per annum, awarded by competition to a Portuguese student of the institution.

In the Gujaráth College there are altogether five scholarships, one of Rs. 9, one of Rs. 7, one of Rs. 5 and two of Rs. 4 per month. The stipends are paid ont of the income of a private endowment, and the scholarships are awarded to the most meritorious students.

In the Rájárám College there are four scholarships of Rs. 10 each per mensem, tenable by students of the Rájárám high school. They are awarded mainly in accordance with the results of the matriculation examination, but under the rules, the pecuniary circumstances of the candidates as well as their industry and ability are taken into consideration in making the awards. Two other scholarships of Rs. 15 per mensem, and under certain circumstances, a third scholarship of Rs. 20 per mensem, are awarded to students of the college who pass the previous examination and then continue their studies at one of the institutions affiliated to the University of Bombay in the Faculty of Arts. The stipends of all the scholarships are paid out of the interest of an endowment founded by the late Rájárám Mahárāj of Koláhpur.

For the encouragement of students in Sind eight scholarships, each of the annual value of Rs. 240, have been founded by Government. The scholarships are in each case tenable for 4 years at any Government or aided college.

The after-career of the University Graduates.

10. The total number of students who have graduated in the four faculties of the Bombay University since the year 1870 is 625, *viz.*, 291 in arts, 77 in law, 148 in medicine, and 109 in civil engineering. The results of our enquiries

regarding the profession or occupation chosen by University Graduates are shown in the following table:—

Profession or Occupation Chosen.		Number of Graduates from each Faculty.				Total.
		Arts.	Law.	Medicine.	Engineering.	
Service under the British Government in the	Revenue or Educational Department	134	...	...	12	250
	Judicial Department	2	21	...	...	
	Medical do.	...	...	47	...	
	Public Works Department	...	...	...	34	
Service under Native States in their	Revenue or Educational Department	33	...	...	...	74
	Judicial Department	...	7	...	...	
	Medical do.	...	...	19	...	
	Public Works Department	...	...	...	15	
Independent Occupations.	Legal	3	46	...	...	231
	Medical	...	...	76	...	
	Engineering	...	...	...	28	
	Miscellaneous (chiefly educational or commercial)	78	...	...	...	
	Total	250	74	142	89	555
Number of Graduates deceased or whose career could not be traced		41	3	6	20	70
Grand Total		291	77	148	109	625

It will be perceived that nearly 62 per cent. of the graduates in law, 53 per cent. of those in medicine, 31 per cent. of those in engineering, and 32 per cent. of those in arts have adopted independent occupations, and that of the total number of graduates 42 per cent. have chosen careers that are independent of the patronage of the State.

Results of collegiate instruction.

11. Regarding the general results of collegiate education in this Presidency some indications are afforded by the evidence taken by the Commission in Bombay. In the judicial department of our administration and in the legal profession generally the improvement which has resulted from the education imparted in our colleges is most marked. In his evidence before the Commission, Sir William Wedderburn, who has had exceptional opportunities of forming a correct opinion bears emphatic witness to this improvement. Other testimony to the same effect comes from the late Chief Justice of Bombay, Sir M. R. Westropp, whose high position,—first as Puisne Justice and afterwards as Chief Justice of the High Court of Bombay for nearly twenty years, coupled with his long and varied experience of Bombay, dating from the same year in which the Education Despatch of 1854 was issued,—renders his opinion one of the highest authority and value. In a reply to an address presented to him by the Bombay Bar a few months ago on the occasion of his retirement from the Bench, His Lordship said:—

"He thought it would not be denied that now-a-days subordinate judges and pleaders of the mofussil, and still more the pleaders of the High Court, stood in a different position from that which they occupied on the day when Her Majesty's Charter established the High Court in the old building opposite the dockyard. That was only twenty years ago, and if there had not been a complete reformation throughout the Presidency, he was much mistaken. They had an excellent body of subordinate judges, and a body of pleaders much better informed than their predecessors. The pleaders of the High Court were an exceptionally able body of men."

again, in reply to the address given by the pleaders of the High Court on the same occasion, His Lordship remarked:—

"In tone, in learning, in everything that was important for professional men, the pleaders of the High Court were pre-eminent, and they were now, whatever their predecessors in the Sadar Adálat might have been in a by-gone generation, a highly honourable body. This had been proved by their own acts; and what was more they had proved themselves liberal and generous as circumstances which he had the opportunity of noticing would show. It had been a great pleasure to him to see so much of them and to notice their daily conduct for so many years, and the feeling of satisfaction which he experienced was shared by all the judges. The educational institutions now in existence in Bombay, contributed greatly to the class of men who succeeded in passing the examination for the career of High Court pleaders and subordinate judges. He trusted the improvement in education might go on. It had penetrated to a considerable extent among the pleaders in the mofussil also; but the soldiers of the old garrison were too firmly in possession to be dislodged speedily . . . . . In the mofussil the old practitioner had a strong hold, but his place was being gradually filled by the alumni of the Elphinstone High School and of the University of Bombay. That they might go on and prosper was the earnest desire of himself and brethren."

In other departments also of the public service the influence of collegiate education, if not quite so conspicuous, has nevertheless been considerable; and in non-governmental establishments wherever our college students have had a fair field, they have rarely failed to make their way in the world.

Mr. Sorabji Shapurji Bengali, C.I.E., who is entitled to speak with authority on this question, stated in his evidence before the Commission that the Bombay Spinning and Weaving Mills have increased rapidly in consequence of the increased number of educated natives competent to work them; and he added that several of the students educated in the Elphinstone College have found employment in the mills as secretaries and managers.

With regard to the spread of enlightenment among the people through the instrumentality of those educated at the colleges, it needs scarcely to be pointed out that the teaching-staff in the department of secondary education is almost entirely recruited from the alumni of the colleges and high schools. The managers of the Fort High School established at Bombay, of the New English School and of the Native Institution at Poona, and of the school recently opened in Dhárwár, were all educated at the Elphinstone and Deccan Colleges. Our University men also conduct several of the leading Anglo-Vernacular newspapers of the Presidency and their contributions to the periodical and other literature of the day are every year becoming more numerous and more influential. The memorial presented to the Commission by the Bombay Prárthana Samáj also claims attention here, as indicating the activity of our college alumni in movements of literary, social and religious reform. The Prárthana Samáj itself, the Students' Literary and Scientific Society, the Gujaráth Vernaculr Society, the Poona Sárvajanik Sabhá, the Poona Gáyan Samáj,* the Maráthi and Gujaráthi Dnyán Prasárak Societies, the Bombay Branch of the East India Association, the Vernacular Elocution Societies at Bombay, Poona and other places, the Grant College Medical Society, the Bombay Widow-marriage Association and the Arya Mahilá Samáj, all owe their chief support, if not their origin, to men who have been educated in our colleges.

Having regard, then, to the comparatively short period during which collegiate instruction has been imparted in this Presidency and to the fact that it has yet scarcely reached any but the poorer and middle classes of Native society, we may safely assert that its effect on the general education and enlightenment of the people has been beneficial; and that the colleges have sent forth a class of men who are in almost every respect superior as public servants or as private employés to those available in former times. In the development of a permanent vernacular literature our graduates have hitherto taken but little interest; but it is clear from the evidence before the Commission that many Native gentlemen in Bombay, Guajárath and the Maharáshtra are keenly conscious

* The Gayán Samáj was founded in 1874, and began by holding monthly meetings and awarding prizes to those who practised the art of music professionally, but owing to the exigencies of the times were unable to support themselves entirely. On the 1st of January 1879, the Samáj began to increase its usefulness, by opening a school for Indian music, which at present finds no place in the curriculum of Government institutions. The school started with twenty pupils; but their number soon rose to 100; and the classes are now in an efficient state. The Máhárája of Travancore, and many other persons of note are liberal patrons of this society.

of this defect and are ready to co-operate with the University and with the Educational Department in any measures that are calculated to remove it.

Recommendations.

Various suggestions occur to us for increasing the efficiency and extending the benefits of collegiate institutions. But they necessarily involve increased expenditure. We have given our reasons elsewhere for considering that the time has not yet arrived when municipal, and still less any other local bodies, can be trusted to undertake the management of either colleges or high schools. But the intention of Government to withdraw from the direct control of its colleges, whenever a suitable opportunity occurs, has been proclaimed, and in considering our recommendations we must bear in mind the distinct declaration of the policy which Government has made. We think therefore that in view of the ultimate withdrawal of Government any extensions which may be required, should, as a rule, be aided rather than initiated by Government. If any additional apparatus is required, the want should be publicly made known and the liberality of those interested in higher education invoked, whilst Government should announce its intention of supplementing popular contributions by a liberal grant-in-aid. So, too, if the revival of a Sanskrit Pathashala, and deeper instruction in the Vedas and Shástrás is earnestly desired, as we are informed by an influential section of Hindu society that it is, we look to local resources to provide an endowment-fund, leaving it to the State to assist the scheme. Or again, if the province of Sind feels that it is severed from Bombay by the sea, and that the extension of railway communication does not place it within convenient reach of Lahore, and consequently wishes to found a provincial college, we think that the residents of Sind must submit to certain sacrifices and supply an endowment-fund before the State can undertake fresh and unlimited responsibilities.

Extension of the grants-in-aid system.

Physical Sciences.

Subject to these general conditions we are inclined to recommend that the attention of the Department should be more prominently directed than it appears to have been in the past, towards the cultivation of the physical sciences. In Elphinstone College and in Rájarám College suitable provision has on the whole been made for the encouragement of this branch of study. But in the Deccan and Gujaráth Colleges we think the Department ought to take early measures to supply the deficiency which exists in this respect and to invite popular assistance for the purpose. The subject is one of particular importance in this country; and the University has lately prescribed some portions of science as part of its compulsory course in arts. It is therefore desirable that the Government Colleges should be better prepared to give scientific instruction, especially since the aided colleges have availed themselves of the grant-in-aid system to provide themselves with proper apparatus.

Revival of the study of the Shástrás.

Another branch of study, which deserves more encouragement than is at present given, is the study of the ancient Hindu Shástrás. This forms the subject of two representations made to the Commission by the Shastris of Poona and Ahmedabad. We concur in the opinion expressed by them that the preservation of the old traditional lore as cultivated by the race of old Shastris is still an object of importance, and that the study of Sanskrit literature and philosophy at the University is not sufficient for that purpose. It seems to us, too, that the object may be secured without any very great increase of expenditure. The Shastris attached to the Government Colleges at Bombay, Poona and Ahmedabad could probably be utilized for this purpose. The appointment of three or four more Shastris, and the grant of a certain number of scholarships to the pupils who might take up the study would appear to be the only additional items of expenditure that will be necessary if the extra classes be opened in one or more of the existing Government institutions at Bombay, Poona and Ahmedabad. And it may fairly be expected from the marked interest shown in the matter that the native community will be prepared to afford a practical proof of their desire to preserve their own literature and philosophy, by endowing a sufficient number of scholarships. Government might then be asked to encourage this healthy proof of local interest and self-help by providing additional funds for the remuneration of compe-

tent teachers. We see some advantage in utilizing the existing colleges and incorporating the addition proposed as part of the present system. Special instruction in the Sanskrit Shástrás would give depth to the study of Sanskrit in the college, whilst the influence of the college-course would liberalize the special teaching. Another advantage would be that a department, in which local society took direct interest, would be incorporated in the State-college and strengthen its connection with local sentiment, to which we must look for ultimately taking the place of the State and supplying those local bodies of management in whose favour the State is to retire. If however any practical difficulties should arise in carrying out this scheme, we must trust to local effort to create its own separate institution, and look merely to the State to encourage and support it on the grant-in-aid system.

University-fellowships.

Akin to this subject is that of the foundation of University-fellowships. This matter was brought before the Commission by Professor R. G. Bhándárkar in the course of his evidence. It seems to us that the present Dakshina fellowships attached to the Elphinstone, Deccan and Gujarath Colleges, are of very little use as at present constituted. They are tenable for only one year, and it is vain to expect that such a short tenure should enable the holders to fulfil in any perceptible degree the objects with which, as has been already stated, the fellowships were originally founded. We would recommend that these fellowships be converted into University-fellowships, tenable for four or five years, the holders undertaking to continue their studies in special departments of learning and to give some tangible proofs of having done so. Two or three of the fellowships might be specially devoted to the cultivation of the vernaculars, and thus a step taken towards the attainment of the original objects of the College-fellowships. Such a step will probably add strength to the movement which has already commenced for aiding in the development of the vernacular languages. It will, of course, not be sufficient to limit the number of University-fellowships by the supply of funds which are at present spent on the College-fellowships. But having regard to the benefit which every part of the whole scheme of national education, from the primary school to the University, would derive from the improvement of vernacular literature, we are of opinion that no object would be more deserving of liberal State-assistance, if private liberality would come forward to make the necessary commencement. It would be practicable to couple the scheme of University-fellowships with the scheme which we have proposed for the encouragement of higher Sanskrit learning. The opportunity might also be taken to draw closer the bonds between Government and aided colleges by throwing open the University-fellowships to all candidates, irrespective of the college in which they have been trained.

Selection of Professorships.

This subject recalls attention to a matter which was introduced into his evidence by Mr. Apte, and by Professor Bhándárkar and other witnesses, namely, the appointment of Natives to professorial chairs. We are of opinion that the question is one on which it is neither possible nor expedient to lay down any hard-and-fast rule. Competent men should be appointed Professors, whether they are Natives or Europeans. But as a general rule we think that for many years to come, a competent European will continue to possess many advantages over a Native of India in imparting instruction in the subjects of English literature, political economy and history. As a general rule, therefore, it seems to us that endeavours should be made to obtain competent Europeans for the Professorships of those subjects, while in subjects like mathematics, oriental languages and so forth, competent natives may be expected to be available and should, whenever possible, be appointed. We have heard some complaints recently about the injury done to the colleges by the number of acting appointments which have frequently to be made, and for which necessarily good men are not always procurable. The system of University fellowships, if properly worked, might fairly be expected to reduce this cause of complaint. And we may state generally that, as a rule, it is not desirable that a College Professor should be transferred from his chair and do duty as Inspector of Schools. The complaints regarding acting appointments, so far as they are occasioned by such transfers, appear to be well-founded, and no occasion should be given for them.

Residence of professors in college-chambers.

In connection with this topic, may be noticed another proposal which has been made in regard to our college-system. The University at present insists on attendance at an affiliated institution as a condition for leave to appear at its examinations after matriculation. The Poona Sárvajanic Sabhá desires that such condition should not be insisted on, but apparently the Sabhá desires it only in the event of any considerable withdrawal by Government from its collegiate institutions. We however do not at present recommend any such withdrawal, and we are of opinion that the rule prescribed by the University is a most salutary one and ought not to be disturbed. We recommend on the contrary that further strengthening the wholesome influences of college-life upon the students, the Government should provide quarters on such terms as may be considered fair, for the residence of Professors near their college-buildings. This measure has been long in contemplation in this Presidency, but has not yet been carried out. We think that its effect on the undergraduates would be excellent.

Fees.

On the question of fees we have no evidence to justify us in recommending any increase in the rates, which have been considerably raised in the last few years. We would call the attention of the Commission to the evidence given by Professor R. G. Oxenham. We have shown in previous chapters how higher education has been made more and more self-supporting. Whilst its cost to the student has been increased, private liberality has not added to the number of scholarships which in an English University enable every really clever student to pay nearly the whole cost of his collegiate education. Mr. Oxenham shows that in 1881 the fee receipts in the Elphinstone and Deccan Colleges amounted to 16 per cent. of the total expenditure, whilst at Oxford the average fee-receipts amounted only to 13 per cent., and in the Queen's College, Cork, not even to one per cent. It has been suggested that the richer students might pay more than they do without enhancing the rates for the poorer undergraduates. But apart from theoretic objections we see great practical difficulties in carrying out such a suggestion and we cannot recommend it. For the rest we need only observe that in none of the aided colleges in the same locality are the fees as high as in the State-college, and therefore there is no unhealthy competition so far as the State is concerned.

Scholarships.

As regards the scholarships, which Mr. Mackichan in his evidence before the Commission proposes should be made tenable at aided as well as at Government Colleges, it must be observed that no Government scholarship has been founded in either the Elphinstone or Deccan College in recent years, or indeed since the establishment of the University. The history which has been given above of the scholarships in the former college shows that they have really been treated for many years as part of the endowments of that institution, and their withdrawal would be regarded as an act of spoliation. As regards those in Deccan College they were established as part of the original constitution of the Poona College out of the Dakshiná Fund, and we do not think that they can now fairly be alienated from that college. We are, therefore, unable to recommend any change in the present rules regarding the award of scholarships in Elphinstone and Deccan Colleges, except this, that as far as practicable, they should be awarded to poor students, who, but for the stipends, might be unable to continue their studies at college.

Grants-in-aid.

If the policy of the withdrawal of Government from its colleges is to be steadily kept in view, the sufficiency of the grant-in-aid system as applied to colleges becomes a question of extreme importance. Mr. Mackichan in his evidence before the Commission complains that colleges can only earn one-eighth or one-fifth of their total expenditure. He points to the fluctuation of standard in University examinations as entailing special hardship. The reduction of the grant for the F.A. and B.A. examinations by one-half effected in 1876-77 has already been noticed. No grant is given for passing the M.A., nor even for the B.Sc. degree, when taken by a student who has passed the B.A. examination. On another point Mr. Mackichan gave the following evidence:—

"It is a great hardship to aided colleges that the grants for the second and third year of the arts course can only be given on account of students who have attended the aided college in question from the beginning of the course. A grant is given on account of each

student who passes any one of the three University examinations: but in order to earn a grant in the second examination it is necessary that the student should have passed the first from the same college, and in order to earn a grant for the third examination it is necessary that the candidate should have passed both the first and second from the same college; or, to put it more simply, for the first grant two college-terms must be kept, for the second four, and for the third six. The result is, that in the case of a student who has spent even one term in another college, instruction during the remaining five terms is unaided, or aided only when the student is unfortunate enough to fail in the examination and requires to keep his term over again. Now it is a fact that for various reasons, some good and some bad students do change their colleges, and it is no less true that the labour bestowed on a student during the second and third year of his course is not lessened by the fact of his having spent the first year or any part of it elsewhere. In this way a proportion of the work by aided colleges is quite unaided."

We are compelled to admit that the grants-in-aid to collegiate institutions are inadequate, that the scale has even been reduced in recent years, although the total awards may have increased by the progress made in aided colleges, and that the complaints, which we have given at length, are well-founded. We also bear in mind the declared policy of withdrawal, and we recognize the important bearing which the sufficiency of grants-in-aid has upon increasing the efficiency of aided colleges, and pressing them to take a higher position in the scheme of education. But on the other side of the question equally important considerations must be borne in mind, before any remedy is suggested. We entirely misunderstand the policy of withdrawal, if it is intended that the State institutions should be starved into inefficiency before their transference. On the contrary, we believe that it is intended that, without allowing them to expand so as to crush out private enterprise, the State-colleges should be small and few, but developed to the highest possible state of efficiency until the very hour of their transference. Our first point therefore is that the State-colleges should be maintained in an efficient state, and even developed as circumstances may require, so long as they remain managed by the State. We contemplate no large addition to their cost, and no addition to the number of State-colleges, but still less do we expect any reduction of cost. We see no immediate prospect of increasing their fees, nor have we any desire to increase their attendance. But if by such means extra funds should be obtained, we doubt not they will be required to strengthen the institutions in some new direction. Our second point may now be stated. If no reduction in the expenditure of Government colleges is possible, then any increase of grants to aided colleges involves an increased expenditure on higher education. Where then are the funds to come from? The funds for primary education cannot be diverted, in this Presidency at least, from the object for which they are contributed. Increased expenditure on colleges involves therefore an increase in the provincial grant, and we have no means of deciding whether that is practicable. We can therefore do no more than recommend the claims of aided colleges to consideration. The grant-in-aid rules are not sufficiently liberal. The question of the best method of increasing them remains. There are objections to giving very large grants for particular examinations. A reward of Rs. 150 to a single pupil for passing a single examination offers a great temptation to a rival institution to attract by any means a clever undergraduate to it. For this reason the conditions of residence, to which Mr. Mackichan objects, were probably prescribed. It might be better to give a lump grant to a well-established college, but this would introduce the question of discretion which might fluctuate more than the results of the University examinations. These are practical difficulties, and we are not prepared to do more than state them. We should advise that the Principals of aided colleges be invited to suggest a scheme, and then, if additional funds are forthcoming, it would be possible to increase the aid given to private colleges without imparing the efficiency of the State-colleges, which are at present administered as economically as it is possible to administer them.

We must now refer to a suggestion which we have received for the establishment of a college in Sind. In the preface to this chapter we have alluded to the confusion of tongues in Sind, the apathy of the predominant Muhammadan population, and the monopoly which the Amil class possess in offices, both public and private. At present there are eight scholarships which connect the high schools in Sind with colleges affiliated to the Bombay University. But the sea cuts off Bombay from Karachi and practically Sind is isolated. Experience only

Sind College.

can show whether the railway communication with Lahore will draw the province towards the Punjab University. We doubt if it will. The isolation of Sind is much to be regretted, and there is no doubt that for administrative purposes the supply of educated talent in the province is unequal to the demand. A college, if successful, would doubtless increase the supply. But at present private enterprise shows no inclination to enter that field of labour. We think therefore that, if the number of scholarships is insufficient, they should be increased, and should of course be open to all institutions in Sind, whether Government or aided, as well as tenable at any college affiliated to the University. For the rest the first move must be made by public-spirited residents of Sind. We cannot recommend that Government should incur unlimited responsibilities in founding a college which may be a failure, and in a province where there is no sign of private enterprise to take the place of Government should the State wish hereafter to withdraw. When an adequate foundation is supplied by local resources, Government may then be expected to assist with a grant-in-aid.

We have reserved to the last our recommendations regarding the Gujarath College, on which subject the Commission received on November 6th a memorial from the college fund committee and representations from the leading citizens of Ahmedabad. The college at present is limited to teaching up to the standard of the previous examination, and one of the complaints made is that it does not teach up to the B.A. standard. It is alleged that so long as the college-course is limited to the P.E. standard, which has now taken part of the place filled by the old F.E.A., it cannot satisfy the demand which the contributors to the college fund intended to supply. The point of the argument is this. Those who go to a college at all wish to take a degree, and Government have lately given extreme prominence to collegiate education by reserving certain high revenue appointments for graduates. If a young man who is ambitious enough to seek to qualify for these appointments is compelled to go to Bombay to complete two years of the course, it is a very doubtful advantage to him to spend only one year in another college with different lecturers and professors. The disadvantages of dividing his whole course between Bombay and the capital of his own province outweigh the advantages of a solitary year spent in the provincial college which involves less expense and less severance from the ties of home. Therefore a limited course like that of the present college fails to meet the wants of the province and the expectations of its founders. The claims of Gujaráth to have a college of its own are various. The province contributes one-third of the total land-revenue of the Presidency. Geographically as well as ethnically Gujaráth is distinct from the Deccan, and its inhabitants feel an objection to leaving their province to study in Bombay, which nothing but a certain and secured prospect of advancement can remove. The result is that the public service is annually being recruited by importations from the Deccan, and elsewhere. This arises from no want of ability or enterprise in the population of Gujaráth. On the contrary, this province is the most enterprising and advanced in every respect of all the provinces of the Bombay Presidency. But our educational system there is a foundation without a superstructure. The primary and secondary schools are well filled, and the demand for instruction in the higher standards is exceptionally large. But as there is no college on the spot, the expatriation which is involved in going to Bombay acts as a deterrent to the completion of a sound education.

The leading citizens of Ahmedabad determined to supply the want as far as possible. By the end of 1860 they had raised an endowment-fund of Rs. 72,500. The endowment-fund, exclusive of the scholarship-endowments, now amounts to Rs. 1,15,000. It has been estimated that an endowment-fund of Rs. 2,00,000 is required which would secure an annual income of Rs. 8,000 a year. The municipality of Ahmedabad have guaranteed a grant of Rs. 3,000 per annum until the endowment-fund reaches the limit suggested. Practically, therefore, so far as Government are concerned, private enterprise in Gujaráth has come forward with a provision of Rs. 666-10-8 a month, and it now calls on Government to provide an equal contribution. The college fund committee found their claim not merely on general grounds of expediency and justice, but, as they allege, on specific promises and guarantees which they consider have been made to them. The college was re-opened on its present footing in March 1879, and since then the committee have paid Rs. 8,000 per annum for its maintenance. The number

of students, which rose in the first year to 39, has now become reduced to seven. Government has merely paid the difference between the Rs. 8,000 contributed by the committee and the actual expenses. The committee are dissatisfied with the action of Government in three main particulars :—

1st.—They consider that the college-course should be expanded, so that it may teach up to the B.A. standard. Without this expansion they consider that the college can never be successful.

2nd.—They are of opinion that the selection of the college principals has been unfortunate.

3rd.—They complain that Government does not pay its proper share of the expenditure. They urge that Government should at once spend the whole of the Rs. 16,000 on the institution, thus making the college more efficient and securing a fair trial for the experiment.* If however Government is not prepared to incur this expense, and boldly trusts to the college being filled in response to their liberality, then at least they urge that Government should not throw the whole cost of the present establishment on the endowment-fund but bear a moiety of it, so that the endowment-fund may be saved and thus increase. It is only necessary to add to this statement of the facts that Ahmedabad is distant from Bombay 300 miles, that the large city of Surat and the country surrounding it is almost equi-distant from Bombay and Ahmedabad, and that recently a college has been opened at Baroda which is 60 miles distant from Ahmedabad. On the other hand, the demand for graduates in the political States of Káthiáwár is considerable, and it is clear that public opinion in the British districts of Gujaráth is entirely and strongly on the side of the citizens of Ahmedabad. Vicissitudes of policy have been frequent in the State of Baroda, and although every one may hope that the present Mahárájá will live long and continue his patronage of education, still the possible uncertainty of the future of the Baroda College must be remembered. The claims of the citizens of Ahmedabad deserve the consideration of the Commission, and we would recommend that the college be raised at once to an institution teaching up to the B.A. standard, and that the interest of the endowment, together with the municipal grant, be supplemented by an equal contribution from Government for a fixed period of six years. If at the end of that time the college shall have shown vitality, its endowment-fund will probably be increased, its fee-receipts will bear a larger proportion of its expenditure and the cost to Government will be reduced. Not merely as a provincial institution, but as owing its existence to private enterprise, the institution appears to us one which deserves exceptional encouragement at all events for a fixed term of years. Under proper direction and with its course extended we believe that the college would prove a successful and useful institution.

* As the memorials presented to us suggest that the treatment of Government has been unfair, we think is desirable to lay the following facts before the Commission. The complaint is that Government guaranteed to meet the endowment-fund and municipal grant with an equivalent contribution not exceeding Rs. 8,000 per annum and that the trustees to the fund are not fairly treated if Government exhaust the local contributions amounting to Rs. 8,000 before they begin to spend their own contribution. Whatever guarantees were given in the early history of the college and whatever verbal assurances may have been made by His Excellency Sir Richard Temple, must in our opinion be considered to have lapsed or to have found their final expression in subsequent negotiations which were reduced to writing. A formal trust-deed was drafted, but not executed, in 1880; and it contains no notice of this part of the contract. But in June 1879 the Secretary of State wrote to the Government of India, as follows: "I sanction the arrangement stated, on the understanding that the Government contribution is limited annually to the amount necessary to maintain the college and that such contribution shall not exceed Rs. 8,000 per annum." In communicating these orders the Government of India observed :—"It should be distinctly understood that the maximum grant from the State for the maintenance of the college is to be Rs. 8,000 a year, and that all charges connected with the college in excess of this sum, including the cost of absentee allowances and pensions of the principal and professors, must be defrayed from private sources." These extracts will enable the Commission to draw their own conclusion as to whether the Government can be charged with breach of faith in requiring the full expenditure of Rs. 8,000 from local resources before they begin to spend their own grant-in-aid. It must further be mentioned that the Government of India by a Resolution No. 1548, dated November 27th 1880, remitted the demand for the annual contribution for pension and leave-allowances, thus relieving the endowment-fund of an annual charge of Rs. 3,375. On the whole, then, we may observe that the attitude of Government towards the local efforts made by the people of Gujeráth, whilst it might be characterised by greater liberality, has hitherto been determined by higher authority, and that it affords no ground for a charge of breach of faith.

SECTION E.—*Female Education.*

Its extent.

1. The extent to which the education of girls and women is being carried under the direct influence of the department may be measured by the fact, that there were on March 31st last altogether 24,766 girls and women under instruction in schools recognized by the department. Of these 73 women are in the two training colleges, 19,917* girls are at primary schools, and 555† are learning English in nine middle-class schools aided by the department, 4,296 girls are attending boys' schools, chiefly in the scattered villages where the attendance is too small and precarious to induce the local committees to open girls' schools. Outside the influence of the department, there are several other schools‡ which prefer to keep aloof from public curiosity, and we are unable to ascertain the numbers attending them. The extent also, to which Zenana teaching is carried, cannot be precisely estimated, as those engaged in the work are compelled to maintain some reserve. The progress of female education depends necessarily upon the public estimation of its value, and native society, especially outside the larger cities, is still doubtful about its advantages. To this reserve and popular misgiving is probably due the fact that the returns of the recent census show only 21,193 females under instruction in the whole Presidency. These figures our more accurate information enables us to discredit. But the general indifference to female education in the Bombay Presidency has left its trace not merely on the census-returns, but also on municipal accounts, in which the contributions made to female education, with two exceptions, are paltry, and in the fact that the primary instruction supplied by Government does not go beyond the elementary stage. Yet there are special advantages which female education enjoys in the Western Presidency. Women are much more free to move in public here than in Bengal or the north of India. Girls remain at school to a later age, and in the rural districts amongst the lower classes there is really very little active opposition to their education. On the other hand, whilst opposition is less active and general, indifference is more stolid; and though under the influence of missionary enterprise and the efforts of Government primary education is making fair progress, there is much room for the wider and higher extension of female instruction.

Classes of schools.

2. There are no female colleges in the Presidency. The remarkable demand for education which distinguishes the Pársi community, especially in Bombay, extends also to female education, and the Alexandra Native Girls' Institution might, under better management, have developed into a collegiate school. At present, however, its fortunes are at a low ebb. Not only is there no female college in the Presidency, but even the secondary education of girls is left entirely to private enterprise and confined to a single division. There is not a single Government anglo-vernacular school; but there are 9 such aided institutions, which are situated in the Central Division, and were teaching 555 pupils on March 31st. A list of them is given in the margin, and it will be observed that they all exist in or near Bombay and Poona. Their fees vary from a purely nominal rate of 8 annas at St. Anne's to Rs. 5 per mensem at the Frere-Fletcher School. But a better notion of the want they supply and of their prospects will be gained by observing that 56·40 per cent. of their attendance is supplied by Native Christians, 23·78 per cent. by Pársis, and 17·12 by Europeans. The whole attendance of 555 was made up of 313 Native Christians, 132 Pársis, 95 Europeans, only three Bráhmans, and two Muhammedans, with three Hindus other than Bráhmans, and seven girls of other religions and classes. The Christian population of Bombay includes 9,259 illiterate females, and in Poona there are 1,682 Christian women and girls, who can neither read nor write. Without travelling beyond the limits of the Christian and Pársi communities there is therefore a wide field for the extension

1 Alexandra Institution, Bombay.
2 St. Anne's, Poona.
3 All Saints' Orphanage, Dápoli.
4 Frere-Fletcher School, Bombay.
5 A. Cawasjis' Private School, Bombay.
6 Sir C. J. Readymoney's School, Bombay.
7 St. Joseph's, Cavel.
8 St. Joseph's, Bandora.
9 M. C. Viegas' School, Lower Máhim.

* Including 58 boys not separable from the return.
† Including 17 boys not separable from the return.
‡ A well-known Pársi gentleman estimates that 2,000 Pársi girls in Bombay City alone attend schools which receive and require no assistance from the State.

of secondary female education. Hitherto, however, the efforts of Government have been exclusively devoted to the cause of primary instruction, and success has been fairly uniform throughout all the divisions. The following table shows how the primary schools and scholars are distributed throughout the Presidency:—

Institution.		Sind.	Northern Division.	North-East Division.	Central Division.	Southern Division.	All Divisions.
Government	Schools	20	46	35	39	41	181
	Scholars	1,106	3,359	1,900	2,622	2,309	11,296
Aided	Schools	2	17	3	22	6	50
	Scholars	217	1,509	225	2,101	286	4,338
Inspected	Schools	...	73		6	16	95
	Scholars	...	3,270	...	198	815	4,283
Total	Schools	22	136	38	67	63	326
	Scholars	2,323	8,138	2,125	4,921	3,410	19,917

A glance at this table will show how unevenly private enterprise has distributed female schools over the Presidency. Were it not for the department, two Divisions of the Presidency would be practically neglected, and in the rest the operations of aided schools are almost exclusively confined to the largest cities. This fact is deserving of notice, because aid of some sort is never refused in the case of girls' schools, and the department has always endeavoured to overcome the popular prejudice against female education by enlisting every possible agency in the work of promoting it. It may be that the assistance rendered by Government is insufficient, but this question will be discussed further on. All the girls who are shown in the table above as attending Government schools are attending cess-schools for girls, and the table which follows will show that the vast majority were under 10 years of age. Barely 21 per cent. of the girls were between 10 and 13 years of age, and only 182 girls in the cess-schools were above 13 years.

Classified Statement showing the Age of Pupils attending Government Cess-schools on March 31st, 1882.

Division.	Total Number of pupils whose ages have been returned.	Number of pupils below 10 years of age.	Percentage.	Number of pupils between 10 and 13 years of age.	Percentage.	Number of pupils above 13 years of age.	Percentage.
Central Division	2,622	2,057	78·45	534	20·37	31	1·18
North-East Division	1,900	1,633	85·95	261	13·73	6	·32
Northern Division	3,359	2,431	72·37	837	24·92	91	2·71
Southern Division	2,309	1,727	74·79	551	23·86	31	1·34
Sindh	1,106	898	81·19	185	16·73	23	2·08
Total	11,296	8,746	77·43	2,368	20·96	182	1·61

We have already shown in what proportion the various classes of the community contribute to the attendance in middle-class schools. Out of the 19,917 girls attending all primary schools recognized by the department the various religious communities supply the proportions shown below:—

	Europeans.	Native Christians.	Brahmans.	Other Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Parsis.	Aborigines.	Others.
Numbers at school . .	2	684	4,517	11,230	1,366	1,932	15	171
Percentage . . .	·01	3·43	22·63	56·38	6·86	9·70	·08	·86

From this it appears that all classes are fairly represented in the cess-schools and no objection is taken to girls of one class meeting others of different classes. This is the case even in higher institutions. In the training college at Ahmedabad in the Northern Division there are 14 students residing in the college compound, of whom seven are Brahmans, three Hindus of the cultivating class, and four Native Christians. They all associate together and live on terms of friendly intercourse.

Mixed Schools.

3. Included in the list of 35 Government institutions, which exist in the North-East Division, there are two mixed schools, both situated in Khandesh and intended for small Muhammadan girls and boys. They contain 67 girls and 58 boys, who are of tender age and taught in Hindustani. Besides these, there are several boys' schools, in which girls are taught. On March 31st there were 4,296 girls attending these schools, and of them 446 were at schools in the Native States attached to the Southern Division. These schools can hardly be called mixed schools as they are in every respect as to management and instruction boys' schools, but the parents see no objection to sending sisters with their brothers to school, and the rural public sentiment on the subject is well expressed in the remark that "those who play together in the field without restraint, may learn together in the village-school."

Standards.

4. There are special standards of instruction for female schools which are given below;—

STANDARDS FOR FEMALE SCHOOLS.

Maximum of Marks given at Examinations.

Standard I.

100 *1st head.*—Native multiplication-tables up to 20+10. Easy questions to be solved with their use.

100 *2nd head.*—The script (Modi) and Devanagari alphabets complete. Writing easy words composed of simple letters.

100 *3rd head.*—Reading the Devanagari first book with tolerable fluency. Recitation of the poetry in the book.

Standard II.

100 *1st head.*—Native multiplication-tables of fractional figures from ¼ to 2½ multiplied by integers 1 to 20, and easy questions in mental arithmetic to be solved by means of the tables. Notation and numeration up to 100,000. Addition of not more than four numbers, each less than 10,000. Subtraction of numbers less than 10,000.

100 *2nd head.*—Reading the second book in Devanagari and the first 30 lessons in the Modi first book, with explanation of the part read. The poetry to be repeated.

Maximum of Marks given at Examinations.	
100	*3rd head.*—Writing to dictation in Devanagri 3 lines from the first book, with not more than six mistakes. Modi large-hand to be commenced.
100	*4th head.*—Plain sewing.

Standard III.

100	*1st head.*—Multiplication and division of numbers less than 10,000 by numbers less than 100, and reduction involving the use of native tables of money, weight, measure, and capacity. Easy mental arithmetic to be solved by the aid of the multiplication-tables learnt.
100	*2nd head.*—Reading the whole of the third departmental book in Devanagri and the first book in Modi, with explanation of the part read and the meaning of words. Poetry of the third book to be understood and repeated.
100	*3rd head.*—Writing to dictation in Bálbodha, three lines from the book read, with not more than six mistakes. A full writing-book (Modi large-hand) to be produced.
100	*4th head.*—Geography.—Knowledge of what a map is, *e.g.*, of the cardinal points of the compass, and how they and different portions of the earth are represented, &c.
100	*5th head.*—Plain needlework.

*Standard IV.**

100	*1st head.*—Arithmetic.—In addition to previous standards, the four compound rules and simple proportion. Easy sums in mental arithmetic involving the native tables of money, weight, measure and capacity.
100	*2nd head.*—Reading the prose parts and 100 lines of the poetry of the fourth Devanagri book with explanation of the part read and the meaning of words. The poetry to be repeated. Reading a well-written Modi paper (to be brought by the Examiner).
100	*3rd head.*—Writing to dictation in Devanagri and Modi three lines from the book read, with not more than six mistakes. Modi copy-book to be produced (middle-hand).
100	*4th head.*—Geography.—Elementary geography of the collectorate, involving knowledge of its boundaries, rivers, mountains, made-roads, railways principal towns, &c. (Places to be pointed out on the map).
100	*5th head.*—Plain and fancy needle-work.

The reading books are the same as those used in the boys' schools, with a few additions. A Garbavali, or book of simple songs, is generally used in Gujarathi schools. In Sind there is also a song-book, a treatise on female education, and a few other special works in Gurmukhi for use in the female schools.

Zenana instruction and other agencies.

5. Zenana instruction is being given by most of the missionary societies, although it is impossible, and even in some cases undesirable, to place on paper the extent of their operations. The Indian Female Normal School and Instruction Society aims at affording a religious and secular instruction not merely to women at their homes, but also to children at school, and is training female teachers to carry on the work of the society. It has established its agencies at Bombay, Násik, Poona, Thána, Ahmednagar and Sholápur, besides Aurangábád, Jálna, and Bhándárá outside the Presidency. The objects of the

* For Standards V and VI in Gujarathi girls' schools, see Appendix G (pages 37—38) to the Director of Public Instruction's Special Report to the Government of India on Primary Education, No. 2930, dated September 3rd, 1881.

Church Missionary Society, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, and the Free Church of Scotland and American Missions are precisely similar. All these agencies are doing excellent work. House-visitation is only a part of their scheme, and in this Presidency, where children are left at school even after marriage until 11 or 12 years of age, and social customs permit a much greater liberty to women, no* difficulty is felt in inducing parents to send their children to the society's schools. At present no grant-in-aid is given for the results of the secular education imparted at home, and the grants given for school examinations are said to be insufficient. A capitation grant of eight annas, and double the grants given to boys' schools for results are found in practice to afford very little assistance to the cost of maintaining girls' schools. There is no inspectress, and as the chief efforts of these societies are confined to a few centres, it has been suggested that some of the ladies engaged in education could easily be induced to undertake the work of inspection and examination, until a greater extension of female education justified Government in appointing a school inspectress to examine aided girls' schools. The zenana agencies are training a certain number of women to undertake the profession of teaching, and they would receive substantial encouragement if Government gave a special grant for trained pupils, and on their passing an examination presented them with a diploma or certificate which would qualify them for service in the department. These are some of the suggestions which have been made, and we notice them here in order to show the present position of affairs.

Female schools unrecognized.

As regards other agencies besides zenana missions, we have noticed the reserve which induces several managers of female schools to remain outside the department. The Pársi Girls' Schools Association is the most important of these agencies. It was established in 1858 to impart instruction in Gujaráthi, and it took charge of the Pársi girls' schools previously conducted by the Students' Literary and Scientific Society, which still manages the Hindu girls' schools and receives aid from the department. But the Pársi girls' schools are supported by adequate endowments and subscriptions, are taught entirely by female teachers, and give instruction to nearly 600 girls. They prefer to manage their own institutions, and it is said that an objection is entertained to instruction in English, which the parents fear would unsettle the minds of their daughters and unfit them for the discharge of their domestic duties. We are unable to state the number of schools and scholars which remain outside the department. But we believe that they are not inconsiderable and are not confined to the Pársi community.

Arya Mahilá Samáj.

In connection with the subject of female education, a brief notice must be given of an important society started in Poona, called the Arya Mahilá Samáj, or Indian Ladies' Association. Our notice must be brief, because the reserve, to which frequent allusion has been made, compels us to withhold names and avoid even allusion to facts which in the present infancy of the society its members are unwilling to publish. On May 31st, 1882, the well-known Brahman lady† Panditá Ramábái addressed a meeting at Poona in the premises of the female college in Shukravár Peth. She dwelt on the position of women in the present state of society, and contrasted it not merely with what it ought to be, but with the precepts taught in the Shástrás. She appealed to men to assist women in obtaining knowledge and the liberty which it brought. Not merely the lofty tone of her address, but the encouraging reception which it met afford every hope that the leading citizens of Poona are enlightened enough to understand their own interests, and strong enough to pioneer the reforms which a true perception of them involves. But it is a mistake to precipitate any social revolution or to attempt to force it prematurely into unnatural grooves. The ladies and gentlemen, who in answer to Pandita Ramábái's appeal at once rallied round her, may be left to choose their own method for reaching the little girls whom our system does not at present

* Miss Collet in her evidence has described the cruel pressure of house-work which falls on little girls, Statistics of mortality illustrate its effects, and it cannot therefore be a matter for surprise that female education suffers, where there is not even leisure for necessary rest.

† As this lady in her evidence before the Commission gave an account of her early life and history we have not repeated it here.

attract. Their method may be quiet and unostentatious, but it must not hastily be condemned. The rules which the Arya Mahilá Samáj adopted will give some indication of the objects of the society. They were as follows:—

1. That the society be called The Arya Mahilá Samáj.

2. That its principal objects shall be—

(*a*) To diffuse education among females.

(*b*) To take steps towards the removal of many injurious customs, such as early marriages, that are impediments towards our progress.

(*c*) To improve the social, moral, and religious condition of native women.

3. That the society be composed principally of native ladies residing in any part of India.

4. That European or other foreign ladies who may lend a helping hand to this society be nominated corresponding members.

5. That females only be admitted as members of this society.

6. That all the members of the society shall possess equal rights and privileges, no distinction being made of caste, family, rank, wealth, and social position.

7. That all propositions brought before the meetings be decided by a majority of votes.

7. That a minimum annual subscription of Rs. 6 be paid by every member, payment of a higher sum from those who can afford to do so being thankfully accepted.

9. That such of the ladies as may be too poor to pay even Rs. 6 per annum be admitted as members on payment of a minimum subscription of Rs. 3 per annum.

10. That the fund of the society, after the defrayal of the necessary expenses, be deposited in the Government Savings Bank in the name of the association.

11. That every intending member be required to make the following declaration: "I will assist to the utmost of my power in carrying out the object of the association without prejudice and partiality."

12. That members failing to act up to the declaration or violating the above rules be removed from the association.

It is of course very easy to exaggerate the importance of the movement begun in May last, and its value can only be tested by its fruits. But the mere conception and institution of such a society as we have described actuated by the motives adopted at a public meeting, in which there was not a single European officer present, is not the work of a passing impulse. It must have been prompted by earnest conviction, and affords every promise of a useful and successful career.

We may also notice another agency which is doing quiet work. Mrs. Sorábji, the Superintendent of the Victoria School, Poona, has charge of an aided school which is chiefly Eurasian. But she also receives native children, and makes a point of visiting her old pupils in their homes after they have left school. In her evidence before the Commission (page 6) she bore testimony to the assistance given to her by native gentlemen who have no connection with her school, and it may therefore be concluded that her visits are appreciated by the native community.

Results of examinations.

6. With the exception of a rare instance now and again, the names of female scholars do not figure in the matriculation examinations. The results of the departmental expenditure on female education, so far as mere examinations test them, must therefore be sought in the Inspectors' examinations. According to them steady progress in the efficiency of all classes of schools may be observed. The table given below will show what these results are, and renders further remark unnecessary. When we consider the difficulties with which little girls who are engaged in

household work have to contend, the results will, in our opinion, appear very satisfactory:—

EXAMINATION-RESULTS IN 1881-82.

TABLE I.—*Primary Schools.*

CLASS OF SCHOOLS.	Number of pupils in average attendance.	Number of pupils examined.	NUMBER PASSED UNDER ALL HEADS.						Total number passed.	Ratio between the number passed in all heads and the number examined.	Ratio between the number passed and the total number in average attendance.
			Standard I.	Standard II.	Standard III.	Standard IV.	Standard V.	Standard VI.			
Government	6,371·9	3,510	966	514	253	115	28	14	1,890	·53	·29
Aided	2,950·92	1,068	246	154	94	44	15	4	557	·52	·19
Inspected	2,400·3	1,288	403	161	86	45	14	4	713	·55	·29
TOTAL RESULTS IN 1881-82	11,723·12	5,866	1,615	829	433	204	57	22	3,160	·54	·27
Corresponding figures for 1880-81	10,003·06	5,542	1,528	741	389	201	52	12	2,923	·53	·29
Increase per cent. in 1881-82 on results of previous year	17·19	5·84	5·69	11·87	11·31	1·49	961	83·33	8·11	...	...

TABLE II.—*Middle Class Girls' Schools.*

CLASS OF INSTITION.	Total number in average attendance.	Total number examined.	NUMBER PASSED IN					Total number passed in all heads.	Percentage on the total number of pupils examined.	Ratio between the number passed and the number in average attendance.
			Mathematics.	English.	Writing.	History.	Needle work.			
Aided Anglo-Vernacular Girls' Schools	445	278	214	194	235	114	244	119	42·81	·27

Training of teachers.

7. No part of the administration of female education exercises so perceptible a result upon the popularity of girls schools as the appointment of proper teachers. The opinion, at which the most experienced observers in Bombay have arrived, is that a suitable female teacher is in every respect preferable to a master, but that the difficulties of obtaining the former are very great. Unmarried women or widows have to contend against the prejudices of native society, when they leave their homes to undertake work in a part of the country where they are not known. Physically women are more subject to illness than men, and their isolated position also makes it difficult for them to perform their duties cheerfully and efficiently when they feel that local opinion does not sympathise with them. The position of a female teacher superseding a master, who perhaps has friends in the town or village, is often very difficult. Still some of them have won the confidence and respect of parents in a remarkable way. A young Brahman widow named Mahalakshmi Chaggan, who was appointed to a girl's school in Surat, became so popular that, when she lost her property by a robbery, the people of the city subscribed and replaced her losses. The well-known Brahman lady, Ramabai Pandita, is not more famous for her intellectual power than for her moral courage and high character. These, however, are exceptional cases, and the general feeling is that until female teachers can be trained and educated in the widest sense of the word or the wives of masters induced to submit to a course of training, the department must continue to rely very much upon a careful selection of experienced and elderly masters. There were formerly three training iustitutions for women. That in Hyderabad (Sind) was closed because as a general rule the women trained there

would not serve in towns away from Hyderabad, and one or two, who were sent to Karachi, somewhat discredited the system. The girls' schools, however, in Northern Sind, especially at Sukkur and Shikarpur, are not only popular but very efficient, and it is probable that, when the present schoolmistresses retire, their places can be filled by some of the more advanced of their pupils. In the rest of the Presidency there are two training colleges—one at Poona, the other at Ahmedabad. The Poona College has turned out 34 mistresses since 1872, of whom 18 are married. The majority have found employ in or near Poona, but some have accepted service in the Native States even as far off as Baroda and Kathiawar. The Ahmedabad College has turned out 31 trained teachers, and seven more will, it is expected, shortly be ready to go out. As a rule, the women who attend this college are the wives of young men who are being trained as masters, but respectable widows are also admitted. At the present moment there are 32 female students in the college, of whom 18 are Brahmans, 3 Kunbis, 5 Pársis, and 6 Native Christians. There is no difficulty in finding situations for the women, and the Native States are always anxious to secure any for whom there may be no immediate vacancies in the British districts. The success gained by the Poona and Ahmedabad Colleges has induced the Lady Superintendent of the girls' schools at Kolhápur to attempt an extension of the system to that part of the Presidency. There are 320 girls at school in Kolhápur and eight of them who have passed the 5th standard wish to be formed into a training class. The Kolhápur schools are attended by the daughters of Sirdárs and the local native gentry. There can be no doubt that, if the experiment succeeds, a great stimulus will be given to female education in the Southern Division, where, owing to the absence of railway-communication and the distance from Poona, trained mistresses are unwilling to accept service. With three training colleges for women the Presidency will be well served, and the zenana missions are also turning their attention to providing trained mistresses for their own institutions. The experience which these missions have gained and the experience of the Pársi Girls' School Association, to which reference has already been made, confirm the opinion which we have expressed that the gradual substitution of trained women for male agency will materially assist the progress of female education.

Income and Expenditure.

8. The table which follows will explain itself. Altogether the department was educating or assisting the education of 24,841 girls or women. The extra cost of education in aided institutions is partly the result of the higher education given in the middle class schools. The general indifference of municipalities to the cause is illustrated by their small contribution of Rs. 2,085, of which Rs. 600 is given to the training college at Ahmedabad, and Rs. 300 by the Bombay municipality to aided institutions :—

Return of Expenditure on Primary and Middle Girls' Schools in the Bombay Presidency for the official year 1881-82.

Object of Expenditure.	Government Institutions.								Aided Institutions.								Unaided Institutions under regular inspection.								Total Expenditure.			Grand Total.	Percentage on Total Expenditure on Female Institutions.	Average Annual cost of educating each Pupil in								Remarks.
																														Government Institutions.				Aided Institutions.				Unaided Institutions		
	Provincial Revenues.	Local Rates or Cesses.	Municipal Grants.	Fees.	Subscriptions.	Endowments.	Other Sources.	Total.	Provincial Revenues.	Local Rates or Cesses.	Municipal Grants.	Fees.	Subscriptions.	Endowments.	Other Sources.	Total.	Revenues of Native States.	Endowments.	Subscriptions.	Fees.	Municipal Grants.	Other Sources.	Total.	Provincial Revenues.	Other Sources controlled by Government Officers.	Other Sources not Controlled by Government Officers.			Total Cost.	Cost to Provincial Revenue.	Cost to Local Rates and Cesses.	Cost to Municipalities.	Total Cost.	Cost to Provincial Revenues.	Cost to Local Rates and Cesses.	Cost to Municipalities.	Total Cost.	Cost to Municipalities.	
1	2*a*	2*b*	2*c*	2*d*	2*e*	2*f*	2*g*	2	3*a*	3*b*	3*c*	3*d*	3*e*	3*f*	3*g*	3	4*a*	4*b*	4*c*	4*d*	4*e*	4*f*	4	5*a*	5*b*	5*c*	5	6	7*a*	7*b*	7*c*	7*d*	8*a*	8*b*	8*c*	8*d*	9*a*	9*b*	10
Middle Schools for Girls—	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.a. p.	Rs.a. p.	Rs.a. p.	Rs. a. p.		
English . .	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5,174	...	...	5,391	1,781	...	9,495	21,841	...	...	..	..	...	...	...	5,174	...	16,667	21,841	11·58	...	...	...	...	38 14 11	9 3 7	...	...	...	...	
Primary Schools for Girls—																																							
Vernacular . .	18,029	43,330	1,185	948	..	...	...	63,492	9,484	222	300	3,127	11,337	9,132	8,881	42,483	19,026	10	...	52	...	2,123	21,211	27,513	45,685	53,988	1,27,186	67·41	6 0 7	1 11 5	4 1 11	0 1 9	10 4 11	2 4 8	0 0 10	0 1 2	5 8 9	...	
Training Schools for Mistresses . .	15,239	2,754	600	...	...	600	...	19,193	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15,239	3,954	...	19,193	10·17	294 5 11	233 11 7	42 3 9	9 3 3	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Direction . . .	577	...	...	...	...	...	...	577	1,138	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,138	...	...	...	...	...	89	89	1,804	...	...	1,804	·96	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Inspection . . .	3,901	337	...	25	...	...	...	4,263	2,097	...	...	66	...	...	...	2,163	1,406	...	...	4	...	339	1,749	6,337	432	1,406	8,175	4·32	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Scholarships— Primary Schools .	...	185	...	...	...	565	...	750	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	750	...	750	·40	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	The expenditure for Scholarships in aided and inspected girls' schools not being separable from those in boys' schools is included under Primary Boys' Schools.
Buildings . . .	792	3,043	...	..	...	...	...	3,835	1,062	...	...	...	...	4,690	...	5,752	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,854	7,733	...	9,587	5·08	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Miscellaneous . .	...	...	...	...	...	150	...	150	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	150	...	150	·08	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Total .	38,538	49,649	1,785	973	...	1,315	...	92,260	18,955	222	300	8,584	13,118	13,822	18,376	73,377	20,432	10	...	56	...	2,551	23,049	57,921	58,704	72,061	1,88,686	...	8 11 6	3 10 3	4 8 1	0 2 8	15 10 9	4 1 2	0 0 9	0 1 0	6 0 6	...	

Note.—The average annual cost of educating each pupil is calculated on the average monthly number of the students enrolled.

Fees.

9. With two exceptions, no fees are levied in the primary schools for girls which are managed by the Department. The exceptions are in Bombay and Ahmedabad. In Bombay Island the fee varies in Gujaráthi schools from one anna to four annas rising to eight annas in one school which is almost exclusively attended by Pársis. In the Maráthi schools in the Island the fee varies from one to two annas, except in a boy's school at Máhim where the girls pay the same fees as the boys, *viz.*, from one to eight annas. In Ahmedabad a small English class is attached to the training college and attended by the daughters of the richer native gentlemen, who pay a fee of Rs. 2 per mensem for instruction in music as well as English. With these exceptions no fees are charged by the Department either in girls' or boys' schools giving primary education to girls. In aided institutions of the middle class the fees nominally vary from four annas to Rs. 2 and Rs. 5 per mensem, but liberal exemptions are permitted. The Dápoli orphanage charges no fees and another institution which professes to charge eight annas has none but free students. In the case of primary schools eight schools in the city of Bombay charge fees varying from four annas to 16 annas, but allow numerous exemptions; ten other schools in the Central Division do not profess to charge any fees at all. In the American mission school at Ahmednagar a fee of one anna per mensem is charged, but speaking generally no fees are levied for primary instruction in Government or aided institutions, established outside the Island of Bombay.

Scholarships.

10. A system of scholarships is hardly necessary where education is free and does not proceed beyond the primary course. Still private generosity or the liberality of local fund committees has endowed a few institutions with scholarships. In the North-East Division there is a scholarship of Rs. 2-8 annas a month tenable in the Government school at Ahmednagar. In Ahmedabad the Infanticide Fund contributed last year Rs. 436 for scholarships in departmental girls' schools, and the municipality made a grant of Rs. 50 for a similar purpose in the aided schools. The local fund committee of Surat voted Rs. 180 for a similar object to be applied to Government schools. In the Northern Division these scholarships are considered useful in encouraging regular attendance, and the system is likely to be extended throughout that division. In the Central Divisions, however, except in Ratnágiri, local funds are probably too poor to give, and in point of fact, do not give any assignment for scholarships. In the other Divisions also it may be said generally, that there is no scholarship-system. The aided schools have a few scholarships and the Indian Association sets a good example of impartial encouragement by giving scholarships which aggregate Rs. 21 per mensem and are tenable in any school, Government or aided. The scholarships, however, in the present state of education are rather prizes than scholarships, and are not intended to assist deserving pupils in their progress through a course of education from one class of school to another.

Prizes.

11. Prizes are either given by small grants assigned for the purpose by local boards, or by endowment funds, as for instance, the interest on Rs. 1,000 invested in Dhárwár by Mr. Jardine, C. S., encouraging female education in that district, or out of funds casually raised by local subscription. A mámlatdár' Mr. Mulé, has also given an endowment of Rs. 200 to the Ahmednagar girls' school for an annual prize of books. In the Bombay Gujaráthi schools as many as 84 per cent. of the children receive prizes, but the general average of pupils so rewarded is about 35 per cent. Books, small articles of dress or ornament, and work-boxes are the chief prizes. Municipalities contribute but little to this object, and it seems to us one which should rather be the care of individuals interested in female education than of corporate bodies. On the whole, private liberality at present does all that is necessary or desirable in rewarding the girls who deserve it.

Recommendations.

12. Female education in Bombay is probably not more backward than in any other part of India, while in some respects it would seem to be more happily circumstanced than in most other provinces. We have shown that there is a general want of appreciation of English instruction, a reserve in submitting schools to outside inspection, and an exclsive attention in Government schools to primary education. Female education is, therefore, proceeding with timidity, and its effects are still viewed with some popular misgiving. An advanced municipality like Poona, which is the head-quarters of several native associations has hitherto offered no encouragement to the cause. Sensible of this fact, which is not peculiar to Poona, the wit-

nesses who have given evidence before the Commission have almost without exception recommended that Government should not hand over girls' school to local boards. But whilst indifference and reserve are salient features in the present attitude of society, there are other circumstances which promise well for the future. Women in this Presidency are allowed a liberty of action which is unknown in the north or east of India; the various classes of the community will meet together in school without objection; and children are allowed to remain at school even after marriage. The principles of association adopted by the Arya Mahilá Samáj are a striking proof of the existence of a liberality of feeling which must one day bear good fruit. Some classes of the community, like the Pársis, have organized a satisfactory system of girls' school without any aid from the State, and nothing but financial pressure has driven the Hindu school of the Students' Literary and Scientific Society to place themselves under obligation to the department. Observing these facts, we consider that the appointment of one or more inspectresses of female schools is demanded, and a careful development of the system of training wives of schoolmasters to enable them to take charge of schools. We advocate the employment of female agency in every department of female education and inspection. We also consider that female primary education stands on an entirely different basis from the education of boys in the cess-schools. This is especially a field which promises greater success to private enterprise than to State agency. The assistance offered by the State should be given on the grant-in-aid system by results, and should be much more liberal than it is. A school which does fairly well should certainly be able to earn one-third of its expenditure. A good school should be able to earn half its cost. Special grants should be given for trained pupils, and if they passed an examination of equal difficulty with the training college examination they should receive a certificate qualifying the holders for service under Government as schoolmistresses. In any towns or districts where an inspectress could not be provided, we should advocate the special appointment of a lady, whether European or Native, who might be found qualified and willing to do the work. A small honorarium should be paid according to the work required. We see no objection to giving a grant-by-results for home-education. The inspectress could examine ladies taught at home, and with a proper code of rules and exclusive regard to secular results the scheme could be worked without difficulty.

Private enterprise preferred.

We propose therefore to look primarily to private enterprise to develop and extend female education. The department would of course inspect and supervise. We have shown that the standards of instruction for girls' schools are not so severe or advanced as for boys' schools. But a sympathetic administration is even more important than any rules or system can be. It is difficult to secure sympathy, even if female agency is substituted for male agency under mere rules. We notice that even in England constant cries are raised against the severity and irregularity of the Inspectors' or Examiners' tests. All therefore that we can do is to dwell on the exceptional difficulties which surround a little Indian girl in trying to acquire knowledge in the midst of household-duties. The statements of Pandita Ramábái, Miss Collett, and the Schoolmistress Vithábái Sakhárám illustrate these difficulties, and they have only to be read in order to be appreciated. But whilst we trust to private enterprise, we would not overlook the good work done by the department, which, as we have shown, fills up voids in districts where there is no private agency to take its place. The school-committees for girls' schools are carefully selected, the revenue and district officers never lose an opportunity of visiting and encouraging these girls' schools and of giving prizes. The State-schools must therefore be continued until local bodies are willing to take charge of them. We are not inclined to trust these schools to municipalities, unless they specially wish to take charge of them. The success of female education depends entirely on sympathetic administration, and the cause would be injured if it was transferred to local boards which felt and evinced no interest in the matter.

Departmental control must be sympathetic.

We should also be glad to see an attempt made to open an anglo-vernacular school in each of the large cities, especially in Bombay, Poona and Ahmedabad. If any local body would undertake to start such an institution we should propose that a specially liberal grant be made, which of course cannot be determined without precise knowledge of the scope of the undertaking.

Anglo-Vernacular Schools.

SECTION F.—*The Supply and Distribution of Text-books.*

1. In previous chapters we have given an account of the text-books used by the department in each class of schools. We have also suggested such improvements as occurred to us. The report of the Simla text-book committee contained a full account of the series of English and Vernacular text-books used in this Presidency, and noticed especially the popularity of Mr. Hope's series for Gujaráth "which is distinguished by the prominence given to simple moral lessons." The Government of India issued a Resolution dated January 10th, 1881, on the report which contained suggestions and instructions. It is only necessary to observe that these instructions are being carefully complied with, and text-books are being revised and compiled accordingly. Under the general supervision of the Director, every province of the Presidency is supplied with a committee, which is carefully selected, whose duty it is not merely to revise and prepare text-books, but to award prizes for any original works that may be submitted to it.

Preparation of text-books.

2. The supply and distribution of text-books to the schools of this Presidency is effected by means of a Government Central Book Depôt at Bombay, and branch depôts at various stations in the mofussil. The original institution, out of which the depôt as at present constituted has sprung, was established almost simultaneously with the establishment of a system of public instruction under the control of the Native Education Society. At first the depôt was merely an agency for the distribution of the works published by the Native Education Society. But gradually, as education advanced, it had to undertake the work of supplying books other than those published by the society or its successors in the control of education in this Presidency. Till 1840 there was but one depôt in the whole Presidency. In that year one more was established in Poona. In 1849 there were 11, and in 1865-66 there were no fewer than 514. In 1866-67, the number was reduced to 237, and now there are altogether 247, besides the Central Depôt at Bombay. Of these 24 are district depôts, 221 taluka depôts and two special depôts; that is to say, depôts placed at political stations and directly subordinate to the Central Depôt. The relations of all these depôts to one another, and the mode in which their business has to be conducted, are all laid down in a Book Depôt Code which was sanctioned by the Government of Bombay in February 1881.

Agency of distribution.

The causes which led to the original establishment of the depôt are still in operation in many parts of the Presidency. In those places which are remote from the larger towns, private effort cannot yet be trusted to do the work which the branch-depôts are doing. It will not pay any private trader to open a shop for the sale of a few school-books in any place where the demand for other classes of books is still too small to make his trade profitable. The departmental agency which at present exists can of course be trusted to provide all wants in this respect, while private agency, if it could be established at all, could only be established in a few of the most advanced and accessible districts. Besides, it must be remembered, that as long as the depôts form part of the departmental machinery, there is a great saving in the cost of carriage and so forth, as the books required at the various depôts can be sent by agents otherwise engaged in the service of the department.

The departmental book-depôt is, and for some time has been, self-supporting; and while it involves no loss to Government, it enables the department on the other hand to sell books at a cheaper rate than any private trader could afford to sell them at. This is a matter of no small importance in the very poor districts of the Deccan. The printing of departmental publications, however, is open to private enterprise, the work being invariably entrusted to private presses which have submitted tenders for it.

3. Our recommendations for improving the text-books, and enlisting the aid of other public servants not connected with the department in their preparation, have been given elsewhere. It is unnecessary to repeat them here or to travel over the ground

Recommendations.

traversed so recently by the text-book committee. In regard to the agency of distribution, it is essential that the cost of school-books should be kept as low as possible. Economy is therefore secured by centralization; and although it is probable that private enterprise might fill the place of Government in a few large towns, we cannot recommend that the department should withdraw from this part of its duties until the improvement of communications and commercial enterprise have advanced far beyond their present limits.

SECTION G.—*Provisions for Physical and Moral Training.*

Physical Training.

1. Gymnastics are encouraged in the Government colleges; and the Deccan College at Poona has a successful boat-club supported by 60 subscribing members. Cricket is played with some spirit by the pupils of the St. Zavier's college and school. At the Free General Assembly's college and school no special provision has as yet, we believe, been made for the encouragement of physical exercise among the students. Gymnastics are practised in almost all the Government high schools and several of them have well-ventilated gymnasia fitted up with English and Indian apparatus. There are also gymnasia in St. Stanislaus' School near Bombay, the Free General Assembly's school at Alíbág, and at the Poona Native Institution. In the Elphinstone, Surat, Ahmedabad, Rájkot, Ahmednagar, and Karáchi high schools cricket and other games are played with considerable zest. The cricket-club at Elphinstone high school consists of 110 members, and has earned the distinction of making the game thoroughly popular with Hindu as well as with Pársi students. Cricket-matches between rival school-clubs are now of common occurrence in many parts of the Presidency, and at Bombay itself scores of school boys are to be seen every afternoon playing at cricket on the general parade ground. But besides this there are three public gymnasia in the city, which are attended daily by some hundreds of boys, and on the premises of one of them is a swimming-bath to which the pupils of the neighbouring schools largely resort. In the primary schools a great deal has been done of late years to encourage Indian games and gymnastics. A large number of schools have been provided with simple gymnastic apparatus, such as clubs, climbing-poles, &c., which have not unfrequently been presented to the schools by the parents of the pupils. In some villages open places near the school-house have been hedged round for a gymnasium or arena, and loose earth or sand thrown over the levelled ground. In the Deccan, where the Maráthas have always shown a fondness for out-door games, very little organization has been found to be necessary for the encouragement of athletic exercises in the schools. The Inspector of the Southern Marátha country also reports that the encouragement which has lately been given to Indian games in his division has attracted to the vernacular schools many little children who would have otherwise stayed at home; and that it has made all the pupils more cheerful at their lessons as well as more regular in attendance.

The physical well-being of the students of the training colleges is carefully attended to. Daily exercise in the gymnasium is a compulsory part of the college routine; and no student is granted the college training certificate, who has not satisfactorily passed through the course prescribed by the gymnastic instructor. The course comprises exercises on the horizontal bar, parallel bars, ladders, swings and stirrups, climbing-pole, clubs, &c., with running, jumping, and wrestling. All the students live in the college under proper supervision, and in the matter of their diet and hours of study and recreation, the college-arrangements are well calculated to secure to them bodily health and vigour.

A moral text-book.

2. In considering the sufficiency or otherwise of moral instruction given in Government schools, it is necessary to bear in mind the restrictions which are imposed on the State by its solemn declaration of religious neutrality. We do not share the opinions of those who have held that an absence of religious instruction is synonymous with the inculcation of irreligious or atheistic teaching. Nor do we feel that strict neutrality is a cloak either partially or wholly for an attack on all religion. It is not unlikely that, when the time arrives for the State to retire from the direct management of schools, those institutions will fall into the hands of teachers who will not be content with teaching natural religion or the fundamental morality common to all civilized nations, but will openly appeal to distinctive religious sanctions. But until that day arrives, the State cannot, in our opinion, proceed without caution and a due recognition of the fact that its schools contain boys of different religions and different religious sects, which view each other with extreme jealousy and mistrust and lay greater stress on their differences of doctrine than on the fundamental truths which uniformly underlie

every religious system. The Right Reverend Dr. Meurin, Roman Catholic Bishop of Bombay, has suggested in his evidence that the State should gather together these fundamental doctrines common to all religious systems, and incorporate them in a moral text-book, in which instruction should be compulsory in every State or aided school. We are inclined to doubt if such common agreement can be secured, and although we support his suggestion, that Government might offer a prize for the production of such a text-book, we should prefer to see it adopted by aided institutions before its introduction into Government schools. We doubt if the world's history has reached such a point that a universal moral text-book would command general acceptance. The cherished doctrines of different religions do not admit of compromise, and the so-called fundamental truths, which precede and underlie all sectional doctrine, borrow insensibly from the expansion and development which they subsequently undergo. If it be remembered that a day is approaching when Government will withdraw in favour of local bodies, then it seems to us better not to discount the future or attempt to shape the natural course which events will then take by "rough hewing" a text-book of universal religion.

Moral Training.

Meanwhile, although in Government schools and colleges separate hours are not devoted to instruction in 'right conduct,' yet we have unmistakable testimony that the general moral tone of native society has improved in the last ten years. This improvement has shown itself in the public service, at the bar, in professional or commercial employment, and in domestic life. Part of this result is due to the leavening influence of association with Western civilization and English officers, but a great part is due to instruction in our State schools and colleges, and to the influence exerted out of school by upright native gentlemen who have passed through the same course of training. In our schools the moral training of the pupils is secured through the system of discipline to which they have to conform,* through the exposition of the lessons in the text-books many of which have a direct moral tendency, and the example of their teachers. These three forces make up the moral atmosphere of every high school. We are unwilling to introduce unnecessary comparisons; but as the question has been raised whether the pupils trained in institutions of a professedly religious character are not morally superior to those trained in Government schools, we may add that we are unable to perceive any difference between the results. Without, however, entering into the question of the relative value of these two classes of institutions, we are able to affirm on the evidence which has been laid before the Commission, as well as on our own experience, that the moral influences which operate in Government schools are sound in their tendencies, and that the good fruits of the system are plainly visible among the educated classes of the native community. We have shown in previous sections of this report that the text-books used in Government schools inculcate reverence for the Supreme Being, parents, rulers, and the aged, as well as regard for law and order, truth, honesty, diligence, cleanliness, and other similar virtues and good habits, and that the schoolmasters as a body are upright men and in other respects well-fitted to instruct the young. On this latter point one of the Educational Inspectors writes: "In our training colleges the greatest regard should be paid to the moral teaching of the students, who may carry the lessons learnt there into the distant villages, where it may be their lot to serve. In the course of instruction laid down, no special lessons are inculcated, but in the instruction given in the method of teaching, proper self-control, patience, kindness and firmness in the teacher are insisted on. * * * * The order and regularity which have prevailed in the training college for many years are in themselves guarantees of the system of moral discipline prevailing; and while among so many there must always be those who are radically bad and vicious, yet taken as a whole, I am of opinion that our village-masters are an honest, quiet and hard-working set of men, and that their honesty, sobriety and energy are greatly due to the system under which they have been educated. In secondary schools and specially in high schools much must depend upon the head-master and his personal in-

* This is a point to which the department has devoted considerable attention, and it may be mentioned that the prefect-system of the English public schools has been worked with success in the Elphinstone high school for the last seven years. (*See* pages 126—127 of the Report on Public Instruction for 1875-76.)

fluence, and this is no less true in India than in England. * * * * Our head masters are usually men whose education and training have been such as to fit them to use their influence rightly, and I believe that as a rule it is used for good, and that every year sees less of deceit and under-hand dealing, and more of open and honest purpose among both masters and boys. In this Division where the men of the department are often invited to serve in Native States, it is no small credit to the department that almost invariably the men so serving have obtained a reputation for honest work conducted with clean hands. If this is true and is the effect of our educational system, then that system has not been in vain, and its moral training has been indisputable, though unaided by the stimulus of religious enthusiasm." The testimony of Sir Michael Westropp, late Chief Justice of Bombay, has already been quoted; and we would refer to similar evidence given before the Commission by Sir W. Wedderburn, Professor Wordsworth, Professor Bhándarkar, and others, in proof of the actual results of the system that has been pursued in Government schools and colleges.

University influence.

3. Before concluding this chapter, we may notice a complaint which has been made by more than one witness in Calcutta and elsewhere, that some of the Government college professors introduce into their lectures questions of morality and religion which they treat in an anti-religious spirit. We have mentioned the obligation of Government to maintain religious neutrality, and no Government servant would wish to be placed in circumstances under which he must more or less be drawn into controversies which are inconsistent with the maintenance of such neutrality. The Universities hold in their hands considerable power, and, although they are independent of Government and of the department, we think they should jealously watch any tendency to depart from the policy laid down by Government, or to place college professors in an equivocal position. In the subjects prescribed for logic and moral philosophy for the degree of B. A. in Bombay we notice Sidgwick's Method of Ethics. This able compendium can hardly be called a classical or original treatise, and its tendency is not distinctly neutral. Taught in an English University, the views which it pronounces would be subject to free discussion outside the lecture-room. But the conditions of Indian education are widely different from those in England, and it is open to consideration whether a better selection might not have been made from the standard and original works on ethics, in which the literature of philosophy is so rich.

SECTION H.—*Grants-in-aid.*

Grant-in-aid system.

1. State-aid is given to private institutions in four different shapes. The great majority of institutions are awarded grants of money in payment for examination-results and for the pupil's average attendance. A few charitable institutions receive fixed grants of money, which are continued to them year by year, provided the institutions are reported by the Educational Inspector to be generally efficient. Others, again, receive special lump-grants for the purchase of school-books or apparatus. And lastly, lump-grants are awarded in aid of school-buildings, including boarding-houses, and gymnasia. Grants-in-aid of assistant teachers' salaries were formerly offered by the department; but during the years that this part of the schedule was in force, no grants were actually claimed by any of the school-managers, and on the revision of the rules in 1875 it was by general consent withdrawn. Speaking broadly, the grant-in-aid system in this Presidency is chiefly one of payment-for-results. As we have already shown, it was accepted by the school-managers in 1865 in preference to any other system, because it involved a minimum of interference on the part of the State; and the system was satisfactory to the Educational Department because it implied a maximum of accuracy in the reports of inspecting officers. The experience of the last 15 years confirms the opinion first entertained regarding the principle on which the system has been administered; and it should be added that the witnesses who gave evidence before the Commission in this Presidency were unanimous in advocating that State-aid should continue to be given in the form of payment-by-results. The Rev. G. Shirt of Hyderabad, Sind, said: "I am not in favour of Government giving grants for anything except work done, and therefore I see no need for grants on any other system except that of payment-by-results." The Rev. F. Ziegler thought that "the system of payment-by-results is the best" and that "the basis of the system is a sound one." The Rev. R. A. Hume also was of opinion that "the system of payment-by-results is on the whole the best system for all classes of schools, because it is the most stimulating to all concerned." The other witnesses accepted the system as sound in principle and with one exception did not advocate any change. The Rev. D. Mackichan was in favour of retaining the results-system only in the case of middle-class schools for boys, and recommended that private colleges and high schools and all private schools for girls should receive grants in the shape of a fixed proportion of their expenditure. Professor Rivé, of St. Xavier's College, on the other hand, would prefer that the system of results-grants should be continued. It may be taken, therefore, on the evidence before us, that the system of payment-for-results is generally acceptable and that its continuance is desired by the majority of the school-managers.

Grant-in-aid Rules.

2. The rules which regulate the payment of grants by the State are given below. Colleges receive grants for each of their students who pass the Previous, B. A. and B. Sc. examinations, subject however to the proviso that no grant is payable for a student who passes the B. Sc. examination after graduating as a Bachelor of Arts. All secondary schools and all advanced primary schools receive grants, which are determined by the results of the examination of each pupil separately and by the average daily attendance of the scholars during the 12 months immediately preceding the examination. It should be observed, however (see para. 2 of Rule 10), that the examination of the pupils is in every alternate year limited to a general inspection of their studies, and that practically the grant is assessed once every two years by the results of the more detailed examination. We would also draw attention to Rules 17 and 18 which are designed to meet the cases of schools on which the results-system would operate harshly. Rule 7, which defines a day of attendance to be "not less than 4 hours' instruction given in the same day," and Rule 6, which limits the Inspector's examination for grants-in-aid to those

pupils who have put in an attendance of 100 of such "days," have been stated by more than one witness to be unnecessarily severe conditions. These, however, are questions of detail which may safely be reserved for discussion at a conference between the Educational officers and the school-managers. In 1875 the present rules were drawn up by a local conference so constituted, and we would simply remark that the time seems to have arrived for a reconsideration of the Code generally.

Grants-in-aid Rules for the Presidency of Bombay to be in force from the 1st of April 1877 until further notice.

PART I.—*Grants-in-Aid according to Results.*

1. Schools will be admitted to the benefit of the following rules at the discretion of Government, and after due consideration of the educational wants of the locality in which the school applying for a grant is established.

School-managers who may be desirous of receiving aid from the State on account of any school which has not been previously registered in the office of the Director of Public Instruction, must apply for registration at least six months before the commencement of the official year in which they wish the school to be examined.

N. B.—The official year commences on the 1st April and ends on the 31st March.

2. Application for registration of schools under recognized management may be made once for all. Application for registration of private schools must be renewed annually. All applications for registration must be accompanied by a statement in the form of Schedule C.*

3. Schools are divided into (1st) European Eurasian, (2nd) English-teaching, (3rd) Anglo-Vernacular, (4th) Vernacular. No schools can be classed as European and Eurasian unless at least four-fifths of the pupils are of European or Eurasian parentage. Portuguese schools may be returned as "English-teaching" or as "Anglo-Vernacular" or as "Vernacular" schools. Anglo-Vernacular and Vernacular Departments of schools should be separately registered.

4. All registered schools will be examined or inspected once during the official year by a Government Inspecting Officer, who will give notice to the managers beforehand of the probable time of examination.

5. Provided that if the Inspecting Officer, on his visit, shall consider the arrangements of any school to be palpably defective as regards accommodation, registry of attendance, or otherwise, he may decline to examine, forwarding, however, a full report of his reasons for so declining to the Director of Public Instruction and to the school-managers.

6. The number of pupils presented for examination must in no case exceed the average number in attendance daily during the previous twelve months; and no pupil will be examined who has not actually attended the school for at least 100 days during the twelve months immediately preceding the examination, or who has already been examined at any other aided school during the current official year.

7. A day of attendance shall mean not less than four hours of instruction given in the same day.

8. No pupil will be examined, or have his attendance counted in calculating the average attendance, who is below six or above twenty-two years of age.

9. In every aided school the daily attendance of the pupils must be recorded in a printed attendance-roll† of the form prescribed in Schedule D.*

10. The Inspecting Officer will examine the pupils presented to him according to the standard under which they are presented (see Schedule A.), ‡ and will furnish the managers with a certificate of the number of pupils passed by him under each head, and of the number entitled to capitation.

A school-manager may, the year after his school has been examined, receive a grant equal to that of the previous year without a fresh examination under standards, on condition that the Inspector certifies that he is satisfied with the school as regards accommodation, registry of attendance, and discipline, and that he has orally examined a sufficient number of classes to enable him to speak well of the quality of instruction and of the intelligence of the pupils.

* Not printed in this report.

† Copies of the printed attendance-roll must be purchased at the Government Central Press.

‡ The Schedule of Standards has already been quoted in detail (see Sections B, C and E of this Chapter).

11. No pupil can be examined at any inspection under the heads of more than one standard. To pass under any head a pupil must obtain one-third of the aggregate marks given for that head, and one-fourth of the marks assigned to each sub-divison of that head.

12. No pupil can be presented more than once under the same standard, except that any pupil who may have passed under not more than two heads of a standard may be presented in the subsequent year (if the school is examined) under the heads in which he failed or omitted to pass, in lieu of being presented under a higher standard.

13. After each examination the managers should forward to the Educational Inspector an abstract for the amount to which they are entitled under the standards of Schedule B. accompanied by the certificate mentioned in Rule 10.

N. B.—Grants will be liable to lapse if not claimed within one month of the date of the Inspector's certificate.

14. Managers of colleges and other institutions recognized by the University may, after registration under Schedule C., obtain grants under the following conditions for pupils who pass the previous examination and the first and second examinations for the degree of Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science :—

(*a*) No grant can be allowed for passing the previous examination for any pupil who is not certified to have kept two terms in the institution applying for the grant.

(*b*) No grant can be allowed for passing the first examination * for the degree of Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science for any pupil who is not certified to have kept four terms in the institution applying for the grant.

(*c*) No grant can be allowed for passing the second examination * for the degree of Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science for any pupil who is not certified to have kept six terms in the institution applying for the grant.

15. Applications for grants for passing the previous examination and the first and second B.A. and B.Sc. examinations must be forwarded to the Director of Public Instruction within one month after the date of passing, accompanied by a reference to the list of passed candidates in the *Government Gazette* in which the pupils' name has been published, and a copy of the certificate under Forms D., F., I., L., and O. (in the University Calendar) which was furnished to the University on behalf of the pupil.

16. Schools receiving aid from the State otherwise than on the system of payments-for-results cannot, unless they elect to renounce such aid, obtain any grant under these rules. But this proviso does not affect the allowances made by the State for soldiers' orphans.

17. If it can be proved that a school has been established where there is an urgent demand for such a school, and under peculiar difficulties, Government will sanction a grant of half the net expenditure on instruction in the first year after establishment, instead of the usual grant-by-results, provided that the examination held in the usual form for aided schools is satisfactory to the Inspecting Officer.

18. If it can be proved that the grant-by-results to any school has through misadventure, for which the managers are not to blame, fallen greatly below the average or previous grant to the same school, a sum not exceeding the grant of the last previous year, or the average grant of the three last previous years, may, with the sanction of Government, be paid to the managers instead of the grant calculated on the results of the current year.

PART II.—*Grants-in-Aid for School-Buildings.*

1. The following are the rules under which grants-in-aid for school-buildings will be made from time to time in the Presidency of Bombay at the discretion of Government :—

(1) A grant of money may be made not exceeding the sum raised for building-purposes by private subscriptions as a maximum, and of such amount within the maximum as shall seem proper to the local Government after reviewing the circumstances of each case.

(2) If the school is to be built where ground is at the disposal of Government, a site may be granted by Government, which may either be additional to the grant of money, or counted at the Government valuation as a part of that grant, as the local Government may decide.

2. The following conditions shall apply to every grant-in-aid for a school-building :—

(*a*) Private subscriptions may be in money, building-materials, labour, or land for a site. The quantity of materials, labour or land shall not be in excess of what is required for the building, and shall be valued by Government for the purposes of the grant.

* The grant cannot be drawn twice for the same pupil.

(*b*) Additions to school-buildings which substantially increase the area of rooms available for school purposes shall be considered to be new buildings within the meaning of these rules.

(*c*) Before any grant is promised, the applicants shall prove to the satisfaction of the local Government that the proposed building is for a public object, is required in the locality where it is designed to build it, and is to be devoted wholly to education, and in part to secular education.

(*d*) Every application for a Government site shall be accompanied by a ground-plan drawn to scale and certified by the Government officer in charge of land. Every application for a building-grant shall be accompanied by complete plans and estimates, by a statement of the means relied upon for completing the building, and by a declaration signed by the applicants that the sum to be supplied from private subscriptions has actually been raised and is available. All such plans and estimates will be first forwarded for the report of the Public Works Department, and must be declared satisfactory by that department before any grant can be guaranteed, and the plans and estimates shall be finally recorded in the Public Works Department.

(*e*) Government will not be bound to make grants-in-aid for school-buildings in excess of the budget-allotment of the year for that purpose. Application for a grant exceeding Rs. 1,000 must be made to Government, through the Director of Public Instruction, six complete months before the beginning of the financial year (April 1st to March 31st) in which the grant is required, so that special provision may be made for it in the Educational Budget of the said financial year.

(*f*) Grants-in-aid for school-buildings not exceeding Rs. 1,000 may be made by the Director of Public Instruction from either the grant for minor school-buildings or the provision for grants-in-aid. Grants above Rs. 1,000 will be made by the Local Government.

(*g*) Grants-in-aid for buildings will be disbursed, one-half when half of the construction is executed, and the rest on the completion of the building, when it shall have been certified by the nearest Government Executive Engineer that the work has been well and truly completed according to the plan submitted, and by the managers that they have funds sufficient, with the Government grant, to pay the whole cost of the building.

(*h*) No grant-in-aid shall be paid, nor any Government site made over, until a deed or deeds shall have been executed by the managers of the school, or their lawful representatives, and approved by the local Government, providing for the legal ownership of the premises, for the proper maintenance of the building, for the management of the school and for its inspection by the Government Inspector; and also providing, in case the building be not completed within a time to be fixed in the deed, and also in cease the building shall at any time cease to be used for the purpose of secular education, or if the school shall be withdrawn from inspection by the Government Inspector, that the site with the buildings on it shall revert to Government, who shall either restore it on re-payment of any grant-in-aid paid, and of the value, as settled by arbitration, of any site given by Government; or shall have the option of purchasing the premises at a price fixed by arbitration, from which any grant made, and the value of any site given by Government for the same, shall be deducted.

(*i*) Grants may be made as a special case in aid of the purchase, instead of the construction of school-buildings, subject to such of the above conditions as are applicable to the case.

(*k*) Government does not pledge itself to make any grant-in-aid for the building of colleges, libraries, boarding-houses or gymnasia, but applications may be separately submitted, and each will be dealt with on its own merits.

N.B.—(1). All schools or other institutions receiving aid from the State will be required to furnish all returns called for by the Government of India or the Government of Bombay.

(2). It is to be clearly understood the grants cannot be obtained under Part I or Part II irrespective of the circumstances of the case and the limits of the sum at the disposal of Government. Should a grant be in any case refused, the reason for refusal will be communicated to the applicants and will also be published in the Administration Report of the Educational Department.

PART III.—*Special Rules for Indigenous Schools and for Low-Caste Schools, &c., not able to present Children for Results-grants.*

Masters who are willing—

(1) to submit to annual examinations,

(2) to make such simple returns as the Inspector may call for,

(3) to give up any bad practices which may be pointed out,

(4) to adopt by degrees the method and text-books of Government schools,

(5) to follow approximately vernacular standards I and II as their course,

and are favourably reported of, shall receive a yearly present, according to the improvement made, of from Rs. 10 to Rs. 50.

The rules in Part III of the Code are intended for schools not sufficently advanced to earn capitation-grants under fixed standards of examination, and it should be noted that the "annual examination," referred to in these rules, is limited to such subjects as the pupils have actually studied.

Schedule of Rates.

3. The schedule which follows exhibits the rates of the grants offered to collegiate, secondary, and primary institutions. There is a consensus of opinion among the witnesses who have given evidence before the Commission, that the grants to colleges and to girls' schools are inadequate. As to the adequacy of the grants to primary and secondary schools for boys there is a difference of opinion. The Rev. F. Ziegler (Answer 11) and the Rev. G. Shirt (Answer 15) think that the grants are sufficiently liberal. Several other witnesses, on the other hand, advocate a considerable enhancement of the rates. On all these points we have already expressed our opinions under the several sections of this Report, in which the position of the aided institutions has been discussed, and it is unnecessary therefore to repeat them here.

SCHEDULE B.—GRANT FOR PUPILS PASSED UNDER THE SEVERAL STANDARDS.

(I.) *For Colleges and Institutions recognised by the University.*

	Rs.
For passing the Previous Examination . . .	100
Ditto 1st B.A. or B.Sc. Examination* .	100
Ditto 2nd B.A. or B.Sc. Examination* .	100

(II.) *For (Anglo-Vernacular) Middle and High Schools.*

		1st Head.	2nd Head.	3rd Head.	4th Head.	TOTAL.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
MIDDLE SCHOOLS.	Standard I	1½	1½	1	2	6
	Standard II	2	2	2	3	9
	Standard III	3	3	2	4	12
HIGH SCHOOLS.	Standard IV	5	5	5	6	21
	Standard V	6	6	6	8	26
	Standard VI	7	7	7	9	30

With capitation allowance of Rs. 2 on the average daily attendance of pupils during the year.

(III.) *For Vernacular Schools.*

	1st Head.	2nd Head.	3rd Head.	4th Head.	TOTAL.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs.
Standard I	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	...	1½
Standard II	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	2
Standard III	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	3
Standard IV	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	4
Standard V	1 8 0	1 8 0	1 8 0	1 8 0	6
Standard VI	2 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0	8

With capitation allowance of As. 8 on the average daily attendance of pupils during the year.

In Sind the grants for Persian in vernacular schools are :—

	Rs. A. P.
Persian Standard I	1 0 0
„ Standard II	1 0 0
„ Standard III	1 8 0
„ Standard IV	2 0 0
„ Standard V	2 0 0

To girls double the above grants for passing heads of standards in anglo-vernacular and vernacular schools will be awarded till further notice. The capitation allowance for girls is in anglo-vernacular schools Rs. 2, and in vernacular schools annas 8 on the average attendance. For any girl who passes under two heads of any standard, a further grant may be made of Rs. 3 in anglo-vernacular and of Rs. 2 in vernacular schools, for creditable plain needlework.

N.B.—No capitation-allowanee will be granted to private schools.

* No grant is awarded for a pupil who passes the B. Sc. Examination after graduating as a Bachelor of Arts and *vice versâ*.

Recommendations.

4. Our recommendations regarding the future extension and regulation of the grant-in-aid system have, with one exception, been stated at length in Sections A, B, C, D, and E of this chapter. The extension of the system of grants-in-aid is entirely a question of increased assignments from provincial funds. Hence the Educational Department has not hitherto been in a position to recommend any reconsideration of the rule laid down by the Secretary of State, that institutions maintained for private profit should not be aided from provincial revenues. We are strongly of opinion that this rule should now be abolished. From the evidence before the Commission, it is clear that the continued exclusion from the benefit of the rules of such institutions as the Fort High School at Bombay, the New English School at Poona, and other similar schools successfully conducted by native gentlemen, who have made teaching their profession, will be regarded by the community generally as an injustice. A system which pays only for results cannot logically in our opinion be made to exclude schools whose permanent existence cannot be guaranteed. The examination-grants paid by the State are not, strictly speaking, for future results, but for work actually done; and when a school declines in effieiency or ceases to exist, the grant falls off of itself. The only grants which are given for prospective results are the donations for school-buildings; and even these are given under conditions which are amply sufficient to secure the State against loss in the event of the school being closed. For these reasons, as well as for the furtherance of the policy by which the State would gradually withdraw from the direct management of schools in favour of private enterprise, we would exclude no private school which is sufficiently organised to present pupils for examination by the Government Inspector. We must however repeat, that the extension of private enterprise and the adequate recognition of results in every class of private colleges or schools is a mere question of money. We believe that the enquiries of our Commission have already given new life and dignity to institutions which are not directly managed by the State; but the permanent benefits of the fresh interest can only be secured by regular and sufficient encouragement from the State. Private enterprise has a special claim upon Imperial revenues. Its development in the field of education is a matter of more than local interest, and we earnestly recommend that a special provision should be made by the Government of India to stimulate the growth of an educational agency from which the greatest advantages may be expected.

SECTION I.—*Inspection and Control.*

Nature of the controlling and inspecting agency.

1. The chief control of education is vested in the Director of Public Instruction. The inspecting agencies in this Presidency are: (1) the staff of Educational Inspectors and their Assistants; (2) the district officers of the revenue and other departments; (3) the local committees appointed to each of the primary cess-schools; and (4) private visitors who are not as a rule associated with any departmental agency. The chief agencies for the local control and inspection of primary schools are the educational and revenue officers; and they are closely associated together for this object on the local fund committees. The training colleges are established at the head-quarter station of each Inspectorate, and are under the direct supervision of the Educational Inspectors. The examination or inspection of secondary school is conducted solely by educational officers; but officers of the revenue and judicial departments largely assist in the management of the model farms and technical classes which are attached to the high schools. The colleges affiliated to the University are subject to the general control of the Director of Public Instruction.

Departmental agency.

On the constitution of the Educational Department in 1855, the inspecting staff subordinate to the Director of Public Instruction consisted of 12 officers, *viz.*, 4 Inspectors and 8 Sub-Inspectors, who had under their charge about 250 schools attended by rather more than 20,000 scholars. At the end of March last, while the number of schools subject to examination had increased more than twenty-two fold, and the number of scholars nearly eighteen-fold, the number of officers employed on the inspecting staff showed an increase of rather less than five to one. In other words, there were 5,630 schools attended by 353,801 scholars,* and the staff appointed to supervise them consisted of 57 officers, of whom five were Educational Inspectors, 30 Deputy Educational Inspectors, 19 Assistant Deputy Inspectors and three Inspectresses of female schools. All but one of the Educational Inspectors are members of the higher graded service of the Educational Department, the exception being the Inspector in Sind, who is usually a revenue officer, who has to devote a large share of his time to duties connected with his own department. The Deputy Educational Inspectors form a separate graded service, and each of them is *ex-officio* accorded the title of *Rao Saheb* or *Khan Saheb*. Three of these officers are Muhammadan gentlemen, two of whom have been especially appointed to inspect the Hindustani schools and classes established in Gujarath and the Deccan.

Other officers of the Department besides members of the inspecting staff take a part in the work of school examinations. The Director of Public Instruction personally inspects a considerable number of primary and secondary schools in the course of his annual tour in the Presidency; and the professors and fellows of the Elphinstone and Deccan Colleges conduct the annual examinations of the second, third, and fourth forms of the Government high schools at Bombay and Poona.

As regards the schools for girls, those at Hyderabad in Sind are under the superintendence of an Inspectress, and at Poona and Ahmedabad the Lady Superintendents of the training colleges have the entire control of the local girls' schools. In other parts of the Presidency female schools are examined by the Inspector or by his assistants; and they are under the direct supervision of the Deputy Inspector.

Further details regarding the inspecting staff will be found in the following nominal list:—

* We omit of course the schools attended by European and Eurasian children, which would add about 4,000 more to the total of scholars.

Head-Quarter Station.	Name.	Designation.	Monthly Emoluments.	Remarks.
			Rs. A. P.	
Poona . . .	K. M. Chatfield, Esquire .	Director of Public Institution.	2,350 0 0	M. A., Oxford. Pay Rs. 2,000, rising to Rs. 2,500. Travelling allowance Rs. 10 per diem.

SIND DIVISION.

Karáchi . .	T. Hart-Davis, Esquire .	Educational Inspector, Sind.	250 0 0	C. S. Passed in Maráthi, Hindustáni, and Kánarese. Also draws Rs. 1,100 as manager of encumbered estates and Rs. 250 as travelling and tentage-allowances.
Do. . .	Ráo Sáheb Alumál Trikumdás Bhojvani.	Deputy Educational Inspector, Karáchi.	300 0 0	B. A., Bombay.
Hyderabad . .	Ráo Sáheb Pribdás Anandrám Rámchandráni.	Do., Hyderabad .	150 0 0	
Shikárpur . .	Kázi Háji Ahmed Valad Háji Mahomed Sáleh.	Do., Shikárpur .	150 0 0	
Hyderabad . .	Mr. Udharám Bhojráj Bhakru.	Assistant Deputy, Educational Inspector, Hyderabad.	75 0 0	
Do. . .	Miss Florence Miles .	Inspectress, Girls' Schools, Hyderabad.	60 0 0	

NORTHERN DIVISION.

Ahmedabad . .	E. Giles, Esquire . .	Educational Inspector, Northern Division.	850 0 0	B. A., Oxford. Passed in Hindustáni and Gujaráthi (Higher Standard).
			100 0 0	Travelling allowance.
			11 1 9	Tentage allowance.
			961 1 9	
Rájkot . .	Ráo Bahádur Gopálji Surbhái Desái.	Deputy Educational Inspector, Káthiáwár.	350 0 0	Paid from the Káthiáwár Educational Funds. Travelling allowance Rs. 50 per mensem.
Surat . .	Ráo Sáheb Mohanlál Ranchordás.	Do., Surat . .	200 0 0	
Ahmedabad . .	Ráo Sáheb Motiram Rájárám Vakil.	Do., Ahmedabad .	175 0 0	
Pálanpur . .	Ráo Sáheb Jivachrám Satwachrám Hora.	Do., Mahi Kántha and Pálanpur.	150 0 0	
Kaira . .	Ráo Sáheb Manidharprasád Tápiprasád Desái.	Do., Kaira . .	150 0 0	
Broach . .	Ráo Sáheb Ganpatrám Gowrishankar Shástri.	Deputy Educational Inspector, Broach.	150 0 0	
Godhra . .	Ráo Sáheb Mádhavlál H. Desái.	Do., Panch Mahás and Rewa Kántha.	150 0 0	B. A., Bombay. Includes Rs. 100 from Local Funds and Panch Mahás States.
Bhúj . .	Ráo Sáheb Dalpatrám Pranjivan Khákar.	Do., Cutch . .	300 0 0	From Cutch State.
Junágad . .	Mr. Dowlatrám Manirám Bhachul.	Sub-Deputy Educational Inspector, Sorath Pránt.	120 0 0	From the Kathiáwár Educational Funds.
Bhávnagar . .	Mr. Kaniyalál Ghirdharlál Dhru.	Do. Gohelvád Pránt, Káthiáwar.	120 0 0	Do. do.
Wadhván . .	Mr. Krishnalál Govandás Meheta.	Do. Jhálávád Prant, Káthiáwar.	100 0 0	Do. do.
Navánagar . .	Mr. Ganpatrám Anuprám Tarvádi.	Do. Hálár Prant, Káthiáwár.	100 0 0	Do. do.
Surat . .	Mr. Valabhrám Vajerám Mehta.	Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector, Southern Surat Sub-Division.	100 0 0	
Anand . .	Mr. Hariwalábhj Muljí Vijawa.	Do., Kaira and Broach.	75 0 0	
Kaira . .	Mr. Ranchodlál Mulakchand Goghari.	Do., Ahmedabad and Kaira.	75 0 0	
Ahmedabad . .	Miss L. R. Collett.	Lady Superintendent, Female Training College, Ahmedabad.	300 0 0	

Head-Quarter Station.	Name.	Designation.	Monthly Emoluments.	Remarks.
NORTH-EAST DIVISION.				
			Rs. A. P.	
Násik . .	H. P. Jacob, Esquire .	Educational Inspector, North-East Division.	750 0 0	Passed in Maráthi (Higher Standard).
			100 0 0	Travelling allowance.
			11 1 9	Tentage allowance.
			861 1 9	
Do. . .	Ráo Sáheb S. V. Patvardhan.	Acting Educational Inspector, N. E. D.	500 0 0	B. A., Bombay.
			100 0 0	Travelling allowance.
			11 1 9	Tentage allowance.
			611 1 9	
Dhulia . .	Ráo Sáheb Vináyak Krishna Gore.	Deputy Educational Inspector, Khándesh.	175 0 0	
Ahmednagar .	Ráo Saheb Náráyan Krishna Goghale.	Do., Ahmednagar .	150 0 0	
Násik . .	Ráo Sáheb Balvant Rámchandra Sahasrabuddhe.	Do., Násik . .	125 0 0	B. A., Bombay.
Dhulia . .	Mr. Bapu Som Sávant.	Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector, Khándesh.	75 0 0	
Násik . .	Mr. Rámji Hari Agáshe .	Do., Násik . .	75 0 0	
Ahmednagar .	Mr. Váman Khánderáo Vaidya.	Do., Ahmednagar .	75 0 0	
CENTRAL DIVISION.				
Poona . .	Major-General T. Waddington.	Educational Inspector, Central Division.	1,500 0 0	Passed in Hindustáni and Maráthi (Higher Standard).
			100 0 0	Travelling allowance.
			11 1 9	Tentage allowance.
			1,611 1 9	
Do. . .	Ráo Sáheb Vishnu Bál-Krishna Sohoni.	Deputy Educational Inspector, Poona.	200 0 0	Also draws Rs. 10 from Miraj State.
Sátára . .	Ráo Sáheb Gopál Balvant Néné.	Do., Sátára . .	200 0 0	Includes Rs. 25 from Jath.
Thána . .	Ráo Sáheb Gopal Morésh-vara Sáthé.	Do., Thána . .	175 0 0	B. A., Bombay.
Ratnágiri . .	Ráo Sáheb Ganpat Vyankatesh Limayé.	Do., Ratnágiri .	150 0 0	B. A., Bombay.
Sholápur . .	Ráo Sáheb Náro Bháskar Deodhar.	Do., Sholápur .	110 0 0	Rs. 10 from Akalkot State.
Bombay . .	Ráo Sáheb Manilál Nabhilál Dvivedi.	Deputy Educational Inspector, Gujaráthi Schools, Bombay.	75 0 0	B. A., Bombay.
Do. . .	Ráo Sáheb Shivram Sadáshiva Nádkarni.	Do., Maráthi Schools, Bombay.	75 0 0	B. A., Bombay.
Thána . .	Mr. Vithal Váman Godbolé.	Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector, Thána.	75 0 0	
Poona . .	Mr. Nilkant Moreshvar Sáthé.	Do., Poona . .	75 0 0	
Ratnágiri . .	Mr. Hari Vithal Phátak .	Do., Ratnágiri .	75 0 0	
Sátára . .	Mr. Báláji Máhádáji Bhándavedikar.	Do., Sátára . .	75 0 0	
Poona . .	Mrs. M. R. Mitchell.	Lady Superintendent, Female Normal School, Poona.	300 0 0	

Head-Quarter Station.	Names.	Designation.	Monthly Emoluments.	Remarks.
		SOUTHERN DIVISION.		
Dhárwár . .	W. A. Russel, Esquire .	Educational Inspector, Southern Division.	1,100 0 0	M.A. Passed in Maráthi (Higher Standard). Pay Rs. 1,000 rising to Rs. 1,250.
			100 0 0	Travelling-allowance.
			11 1 9	Tentage-allowance.
			1,211 1 9	
Kolhápur . .	Ráo Sáheb Bál Parashrám Pandit.	Deputy Educational Inspector, Kolhápur.	225 0 0	Rs. 200 paid from the Kolhápur and Rs. 25 from the Miraj State.
Dhárwár . .	Ráo Sáheb S. K. Roddá .	Deputy Educational Inspector, Dhárwár.	160 0 0	Includes Rs. 10 from the Miraj State.
Kaládgi . .	Ráo Sáheb Rámchandra Annáji Sávanur.	Do. Kaládgi . .	150 0 0	
Belgaum . .	Ráo Sáheb Ráoji Bálāji Karandikar.	Do. Belgaum . .	150 0 0	B. A., Bombay.
Kárwár . .	Ráo Sáheb Rámchandra Vináyak Bhánap.	Do. Kánara . .	150 0 0	
Sángli . .	Ráo Sáheb Bálkrishna Sakhárám Mone.	Do. Sángli State .	140 0 0	Paid from the Sángli State.
Mudhol . .	The Nyáyádhish of Mudhol	Do. Mudhol State .	. .	
Dhárwár . .	Mr. B. Y. Kerur . .	First Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector, Dhárwár.	75 0 0	
Do. . .	Mr. R. V. Bilge . .	Second do. . .	75 0 0	
Belgaum . .	Mr. A. B. Devikar . .	Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector, Belgaum and Kaládgi.	75 0 0	
Kolhápur . .	Mr. Náráyan Chintáman Athavale.	Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector, Kolhápur.	75 0 0	
Poona . .	Khán Sáheb Mirza Abbás Ali Beg.	Deputy Educational Inspector, Hindustáni Schools in the C. D. and S. D.	150 0 0	B. A., Bombay.
Ahmedabad .	Khán Sáheb Ali Mahomed Husanáli Akbund.	Do. N. D. and N. E. D.	150 0 0	B. A., Bombay.

Other official agency.

All the district officers, *viz.*, the collector, the assistant collectors, the district deputy collectors, the mámlatdárs and máhálkaris, as members of the zilla or táluka committees, pay frequent visits of inspection to the primary schools situated within their respective charges; and their intimate knowledge of the people and of local wants and difficulties renders such visits invaluable to the Educational Department. The same remark applies also to the assistance which the political officers render to education in the Native States. The rapid extension and improvement of schools in those territories has already been recorded (*see* pages 85 and 95) and is largely due to the co-operation of the political authorities.

The Local fund Act of 1869 invests the district officers, as members of the local fund committees, with financial control over the cess-schools. But in addition to this they have at all times freely given their services to the Educational Department as an inspecting and visiting agency. In the year 1880 their connexion with primary schools was formally defined by the Bombay Government in a schedule of rules which we shall refer to more particularly in the next paragraph of this section.

School-committees.

Every primary cess-school is locally supervised by a committee consisting of the chief officers of the village or town and of other influential persons. The functions of each committee are to visit and occasionally to examine the school, to take charge of it in the temporary absence of the master, and to advise on all those questions relating to its

management in which the people should have a voice. As regards the actual working of these committees one of the Inspectors writes:—"It must be understood that the committees do not at present perform all the duties assigned to them efficiently. In many cases they are but a name and do nothing; but on the whole I believe that their existence is very useful; and I see yearly signs of an increasing tendency on their part to recognize and take a pride in the position which Government has assigned to them." Another Inspector similarly writes:—"Complaints have been made to me of the apathy or obstructiveness of the school-committees. But I could also quote several instances on the other side, which show that they have strengthened the hands of the master and kept him to his duty; and that they have been most useful in estimating and superintending our building-repairs, in collecting popular subscriptions, and in securing in many other ways the co-operation and support of the people. On the whole I have no hesitation in saying that the school-committee is a hopeful institution, and its influence for good will every year increase."

Non-official agency.

The missionaries of the several societies engaged in education in this Presidency annually inspect their own schools, independently of any visits that may be paid to them by the Government Inspector. They also occasionally visit the Government schools, and we know of many instances in which their visits have been helpful to the master. In the Ahmednagar district, where the missionary societies are numerously represented, the Educational Department has received much assistance of this kind. At Násik a representative of the Church Missionary Society has for some years been a member of the committee appointed to supervise the agricultural class of the Government high school of that place; and several other instances might be quoted of similar assistance rendered to the Department.

The part which European ladies have taken in the promotion of female education has been referred to by more than one witness before the Commission. There are few zilla towns in the Presidency in which the wife of the collector, or other lady of position, is not present at the distribution of prizes to the girls' schools, and the visits of such ladies at other times are not unfrequent. The girls' schools at Kolhapur have been under the superintendence of English ladies for more than ten years, and are in every respect in a flourishing condition. The schools also at Navánagar in Kathiawar, as well as those at Nasik, Ahmednagar, Satara and Dharwar have the benefit of similar supervision. We could also name several places in the Presidency at which native ladies are taking a useful part in promoting female education. We have already mentioned the A'rya Mahilá Samáj at Poona, and we might have added the Native Ladies' Literary Society at Bombay, both of which associations may possibly occupy hereafter a very important position as inspecting or controlling agencies for girls' schools. We are referring, however, more particularly to individual examples rather than to combined efforts. We find, for example, in a recent report of a public distribution of prizes at a girls' school in the Deccan the following passage:—"Most of the English ladies of the station were present, and it was pleasant to note that among them sat a Bráhman lady and her daughter. The lady is the wife of the gentleman who conducted the examination of the school." This is a true picture of what is unobtrusively going on in many other parts of the Presidency; and when taken along with the movements that have been set on foot at Bombay and Poona, it affords ground for hoping that at no distant date native ladies will be found ready to serve on the committees of the girls' schools and generally to take their proper and natural position in the education of their daughters.

Character of the inspection.

2. The average area and the average number of scholars assigned to each inspecting officer of the Educational Department are shown in the table which follows. On the average each Educational Inspector has allotted to him an area of more than 38,000* square miles, a thousand schools and 70,000 scholars. The administrative charge of each of the Deputies is 200 schools and 13,000 scholars comprised within an area of more than 7,000 square miles. But the actual inspection of these 200 schools is equally divided between the Deputy Inspector and his assistant; so that each subordinate inspecting officer may be said to examine in the year at least 100 schools and 6,500 scholars.

* The area of Ireland is 32,500 square miles.

The Area and Number of Schools and Scholars allotted to each Inspecting Officer.

Division.	Number of Officers.	Designation of Officers.	Actual Area allotted to each Inspector.	Average Area allotted to each Deputy or Assistant Deputy.	Actual or Average number of Government and Aided Schools on March 31st, 1882.					Actual or Average number of Scholars on March 31st, 1882.				
					High.	Middle.	Primary.	Special or Technical.	Total.	High.	Middle.	Primary.	Special or Technical.	Total.
Sind.	1	Educational Inspector	48,012	...	6	21	276	3	306	561	1,550	17,282	34	19,427
	3	Deputy Inspectors	...	16,004	2	7	92	...	101	187	516	5,760	...	6,463
	1	Assistant Deputy Inspector	...	8,002	...	...	46	...	46	...	...	2,880	...	2,880
Northern Division.	1	Educational Inspector	56,139	...	12	39	1,830	6	1,887	1,552	3,623	1,19,704	183	1,25,062
	8	Deputy Inspectors	...	7,017	1	4	228	...	233	194	452	14,963	...	15,609
	7	Assistant Deputy Inspectors	...	3,508	...	...	114	...	114	...	...	7,481	...	7,481
North-East Division.	1	Educational Inspector	22,549	...	6	22	842	8	878*	591	1,711	46,550	46	48,898*
	3	Deputy Inspectors	...	7,516	1	5	280	...	286	85	257	15,492	...	15,834
	3	Assistant Deputy Inspectors	...	3,758	...	...	140	...	140	...	...	7,746	...	7,746
Central Division.	1	Educational Inspector	39,358	...	12	66	1,315	13	1,406	2,151	5,447	76,612	187	84,397
	7	Deputy Inspectors	...	4,194	2	13	263	...	278	430	1,089	15,322	...	16,841
	4	Assistant Deputy Inspectors	...	2,092	...	...	131	...	131	...	...	7,661	...	7,661
Southern Division.	1	Educational Inspector	24,586	...	5	66	1,072	6	1,149	866	2,417	71,977	120	75,380
	7	Deputy Inspectors	...	3,512	1	9	153	...	163	123	345	10,282	...	10,750
	4	Assistant Deputy Inspectors	...	1,756	...	...	76	...	76	...	...	5,141	...	5,141
	2	Special Deputy Inspectors of Hindustani Schools in the N. D., N.-E. D., and S. D.	...	71,316	11	8	69	...	88	845	174	3,965	...	4,984
General average for Educational Inspectors			38,128	...	8	42	1,067	7	1,124	1,144	2,949	66,425	114	70,632
Do.		for Deputy Educational Inspectors	...	7,648	1	7	203	...	211	204	532	12,364	...	13,100
Do.		for Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors	...	3,824	...	...	101	...	101	...	...	6,182	...	6,182
Do.		for Special Deputies of Hindustani Schools	...	7,131	11	8	69	...	88	845	174	3,965	...	4,984

*Exclusive of half the aided schools in the island of Bombay, which are annually examined by the Inspector of the N.-E. D.

The average duration and extent of the annual tours of the Educational Inspectors and their Assistants are shown in the following statement:—

Division.	Designation.	Duration of absence from Head-quarters.	Average extent of Inspection Tour.
		No. of Days.	Miles.
Sind	Educational Inspector	* ...	* ...
	Deputy Educational Inspectors	180	3,039
	Assistant do.	90	648
Northern Division.	Educational Inspector	240	3,481
	Deputy Educational Inspectors	240	1,468
	Assistant do.	240	1,958
North-East Division.	Educational Inspector	270	3,095
	Deputy Educational Inspectors	240	1,623
	Assistant do.	240	1,039
Central Division.	Educational Inspector	257	2,946
	Deputy Educational Inspectors	240	1,742
	Assistant do.	240	1,645
Southern Division.	Educational Inspector	210	1,300
	Deputy Educational Inspectors	240	1,582
	Assistant do.	240	1,011
	Deputy Educational Inspector for Hindustani Schools in the C. D. and S. D.	240	Not returned.
	Do. N. D. and N.-E. D.	240	656
Average for all Educational Inspectors		244	2,705
Do.	Deputy Educational Inspectors	228	1,891
Do.	Assistant do.	210	1,259

* The tour of this officer is chiefly in connection with his duties in the Revenue Department and has not been returned in the statement.

Every cess-school and every Government secondary school is annually examined *in situ* by one or more of the Educational officers, and the examinations are conducted in accordance with the standards which we have quoted in sections B, C, and E. The aided schools, whether primary or secondary, are similarly examined by the Department, except that in every alternate year the examination is shorter and much less searching than in the intermediate year. The primary school examinations are chiefly oral. Those in the secondary schools, being more elaborate, are for the most part conducted in writing. The order and discipline of the pupils as well as the efficiency of the teaching staff are points to which the Inspector's attention is necessarily drawn at the time of the annual examination. He also takes the opportunity of auditing the school accounts, and of examining the state of the furniture, library and apparatus, the gymnasium and the school-buildings generally. At the examination of the primary school the assistant collector is occasionally present, and the local committee almost invariably attend. The inspecting officer's visit is generally an occasion for conferring with the people regarding school matters. A homily has probably to be preached on the benefits of education and the dangers of neglecting it; then misunderstandings have to be removed, and contributions for the improvement of the school-house promised on both sides. All this takes considerable time as simple rustic people are not quick at formulating their wants or in making up their minds. But the interests of the school are more readily promoted by these friendly interchanges than by a dozen letters addressed to the school committee or to the schoolmaster. The village-school visitations of the Educational and revenue officers are in fact one of the chief causes of the popularity and efficiency of the cess-schools, for by these means the Department has been enabled to keep touch with the people, and really to understand their wishes and intellectual necessities. As a rule each of the Educational Inspectors and his assistants makes as least 100 of such visits in the year, and whenever indigenous schools are met with they are inspected. Last year the Inspector of the Northern Division examined 82 vernacular schools and travelled 2,365 miles. The Inspector and the Acting Inspector of the North-East Division examined between them 119 primary vernacular schools and travelled 2,355 miles. The Inspector of the Southern Division examined 125 primary vernacular schools and travelled 1,300 miles by ordinary road. Similar figures might be quoted to indicate the work done by the Deputy Inspectors and their assistants. The visits of the revenue officers are in addition to those made by the Educational officers; and as a rule every village-school is inspected three times in the course of the year.

The results of each cess-school examination, when conducted by the Deputy Inspector, are submitted to the Educational Inspector through the collector of the district. The results of the examination of secondary schools are submitted by the Inspector to the Director of Public Instruction. In each case the master of the school examined is furnished with a copy of the results and when necessary with the examiner's remarks upon them.

The connection of the district officers with the primary schools and with the Educational Department will be clearly seen from the following schedule of rules published by the Bombay Government in the year 1880:—

"1. The local fund committees should be reminded of the responsibility for the promotion of primary education which attaches to their actual possession of authority to sanction budgets, vote money for schools and school-buildings, and to determine the places where schools are to be opened or closed.

"2. These committees should now be further recognised as possessing undisputed authority for determining—

(*a*) The Departmental standard of instruction (Devanagari or Modi) which should be adopted in each school;

(*b*) The fees and free admissions in the schools, subject only to such limitations as may be prescribed by Government.

"3. The primary school inspection reports of the Deputy Inspector should be submitted to the collector through his assistant, presiding over the taluka local fund committee, and should be forwarded by the collector with his remarks to the Inspector. The collector will bear in mind that it is essential that these reports should reach the Inspector as soon as possible.

"4. It should also be considered as part of the regular duty of an assistant collector to visit a considerable number of primary schools, and report* the result in each case to the collector, who will act on his discretion as to communicating it to the Inspector or not. The attention of the assistant collector should not be confined to the teaching of a school, but should extend to all matters affecting its interests. He should particularly remark on any rise or fall in attendance, and on the proportion which the attendance bears to the number of boys in the village of an age to attend.

"5. Visitations by the assistant collectors under the last two rules are to be extra to, and not in place of, the regular annual examinations by the Deputy Inspector. A few schools should be examined by the Deputy Inspector in the presence of the assistant collector, different villages being selected each year.

"6. The other members of the taluka committees should be invited also to co-operate by visiting and being present at the examination of schools and communicating their remarks to the taluka president.

"7. The mamlatdars and mahalkaris should visit every school within their charges for the purpose of investigating and reporting on such matters as the sanitary condition and safety of the school-buildings, the use or abuse of the free list, the number of boys present as compared with the number on the register, and the general truth or otherwise of complaints brought against the schoolmaster.

"8. The annual report of the Deputy Inspector on primary schools should discuss all points raised by the collector and his assistants during the working season. The report should be sent in original to the Inspector and a copy to the collector before the 1st of May in order that he may have time to communicate his remarks to the Director of Public Instruction before the 1st of June.

"9. The Educational part of the local funds budget† should be in the hands of the (collector) president at least a month before the budget-meeting.

"10. All quarterly statements‡ and changes in such statements should be forwarded by the Inspector for the countersignature of the presidents of district committees."

The duties and powers of the Deputy Educational Inspectors are shown in the subjoined extracts from the rules of their code:—

"POWERS OF DEPUTY INSPECTORS IN REGARD TO APPOINTMENTS, TRANSFERS, LEAVE, PROMOTION, &c.

"1. Deputy Inspectors may fill up all permanent vacancies of Rs. 10 and under. But no man is to be appointed or promoted to a place of more than Rs. 8 who has not qualified for the public service, and all such appointments should be reported in the Monthly Return, Educational Form 15.

"2. Deputy Inspectors may transfer men drawing not more than Rs. 11 to places of equal salary, and may mutually sanction exchanges of masters from one sub-division to another, provided the places are of equal pay not exceeding that amount. All other transfers and exchanges must receive the previous sanction of the Inspector.

"3. They may appoint substitutes for periods not exceeding three months. But no man is to be appointed as a substitute on a pensionable salary unless he has qualified for the public service, or already draws pensionable allowances.

"4. All other appointments and transfers can only be made with the sanction of the Inspector.

"5. No Deputy Inspector has power to dispense with the services or to dismiss any of his subordinates who are in the receipt of pensionable salary, except when a man has forfeited his appointment by overstaying his leave, or in a case in which, from the abolition of his appointment, a man's services are no longer required. All cases of dismissal must be reported to the Inspector when the salary exceeds Rs. 5.

"6. In cases of flagrant misconduct the Deputy may, however, suspend any one, but must at once report the case for the orders of the Inspector.

"7. A Deputy Inspector may inflict a fine not exceeding Re. 1 in cases of misconduct, which he has either noticed himself, or which has been brought to his notice by his Assistant or others. But he has no power to reduce the pay of any of his subordinates either permanently or temporarily. And all cases of fine must be reported to the Inspector without delay.

"8. Deputy Inspectors may grant leave as follows to any of their subordinates except Assistant Deputy Inspectors:—

(*a*). Privilege leave for one month, but in the event of the absentee overstaying his leave they may grant an extension of such leave for 15 days if the absentee is en-

* The usual printed forms can be obtained from the Inspector.
† Prepared by the Educational Inspector.
‡ These are lists of the Vernacular Masters' salaries, contingencies, &c., which are revised at the beginning of every quarter of the year.

titled to it, or six days' grace if he is not entitled to it. Such extensions to be without pay, unless with the special sanction of the Inspector.

(b). Leave on medical certificate on half pay for periods not exceeding two months. Any extension beyond this period can only be granted by the Inspector.

(c). Leave without allowances under Section 9, Supplement F., C.L.C. for twelve months to men not drawing pensionable salaries. To all others for periods not exceeding 1½ month.

(d). A duplicate of the monthly leave-return furnished to the treasury officers (General Form 5) should be sent at the same time to the Inspector.

(*e*). In all cases in which leave is granted for more than a month to a master drawing a pensionable salary, the arrangements made for carrying on the work of the absentee during his absence should be reported to the Inspector.

(*f*). Casual leave may be granted by the Deputy Inspectors to all their subordinates except gazetted officers, on emergent cause being shown, for short periods not exceeding 20 days in all during the year and not exceeding 6 days at one time.

"9. The Deputy Inspector has no power to open new schools, or to close or transfer old ones. In all such cases the sanction of the Educational Inspector must be first obtained, and will only be given after reference to, and with the consent of, the president, district educational local fund committee.

"SCHOOL-BUILDINGS AND REPAIRS.

"1. The duties of Deputy Inspectors as regards new buildings and special repairs are:

(*a*). To submit proposals to the táluka local fund committees, and, with their approval, to include them in the draft budgets of collectorates.

(*b*). To invite popular contributions towards their cost.

(*c*). To select a suitable site as soon as possible after the erection of the building has been sanctioned by the district committee.

(*d*). Where a school-house is built or repaired by the Public Works Department he should furnish, through the Educational Inspector, a completion-certificate in accordance with the requirements of the Public Works Department.

(*e*). He should keep himself regularly informed as to the progress of all buildings and special repairs, and the way in which they are being carried out. In the event of any irregularity occurring he should at once bring it to the notice of the Inspector.

"2. When the ordinary repairs of school-buildings are entrusted to a Deputy Inspector he should first submit for the Inspector's sanction a list showing the amounts required in each case (Form 10 List C). If the amount in any case exceeds Rs. 20 a detailed estimate must also be sent. After approval and receipt of the necessary funds he should make the best arrangements in his power for carrying out the work, either through the agency of the masters themselves or through a contractor. All ordinary repairs must be completed by the 1st of March in each year, and completion-certificates furnished by the 15th of April following.

"3. In the event of urgent special repairs necessitated by accidents or otherwise, special instructions should be asked for from the Inspector.

"EXAMINATION OF SCHOOLS, &c.

"1. Deputy Inspectors are expected, with the aid of their Assistants, to examine, at least once a year, all the Government or State schools in their sub-divisions. They must also examine all registered vernacular grant-in-aid and indigenous schools, and should take every opportunity of visiting other indigenous schools. When possible they should also pay unexpected visits to the schools under their charge.

"2. The examination of the school should be taken in accordance with the standards and the results noted for each boy in the examination-tables. In calculating proficiency allowances no grant should be given for any boy passed under the same standard more than once, or for any boy who has not been on the rolls of the school for at least the previous year. But the allowance is admissible for boys who have joined a Government anglo-vernacular school since the last inspection: provided it would have been due had they remained in the school. In their case, however, the special sanction of the Inspector must be obtained. In the inspection-report, under the column of remarks, should be noted how many of the number passed under any standard had already previously passed under the same standard.

"3. Every Deputy or Assistant Deputy Inspector, when he visits or inspects a school, must carefully examine all the school-records, paying special attention to the daily attendance-roll, and enter on each register the date of such examination under his own signature. His inspection-report must show in detail any slight irregularity he may find. Graver irregularities must be reported separately.

"4 No. Deputy or Assistant Deputy is, on any pretence, to take any schoolmaster from his proper duties to assist him in examining another school, or to call any schoolmaster to his camp to assist in his office or to attend on him in any way.

"5. No Deputy or Assistant Deputy must ever be the guest of any schoolmaster subordinate to him, or call on him to assist him in procuring supplies or allow him to advance money for the payment of the same.

"6. Assistant Deputy Inspectors are expected, when at head-quarters, to attend the office of the Deputy Inspector daily during office-hours, unless otherwise employed under his directions and to assist him in any part of his office-work.

"7. No letter should relate to more than one subject, and if a correspondence be commenced in English or Vernacular it should be carried on and completed in the same language in which it was commenced."

Employment of Inspecting officers of head-quarters.

3. The Inspector's year is divided into two periods, the rainy season (from June to October) in which he is mostly at head-quarters, and the open season (from November to the following May) during the whole of which time he is on tour. In June and July the inspecting officers are generally occupied at head-quarters with the disposal of any large and difficult questions which have arisen during the year, and with ordinary current work. In August they are engaged in preparing the provincial and local fund budgets of their Division and in conferring with the Deputies. In September and October their time is largely taken up with the training college examinations, with the public service certificate examinations held at the chief station of each collectorate, with the budget-meetings of the local fund committees and with the examination of the high schools. Some of these duties necessitate frequent journeys from head-quarters, but they all fall within the period during which the Inspectors are nominally at their head-quarter station. By the 1st of November all the inspecting staff are expected to be, and usually are, free to start on their annual tour for the inspection of rural primary schools.

Cost of control and inspection.

The total cost of direction* during the year 1881-82 was Rs. 38,954 or 1·32 per cent. of the total expenditure on education. The total cost of inspection† to the Educational Department was Rs. 1,81,686 or 6·16 per cent. of the whole expenditure incurred on education. But nearly 39 per cent. of the cost of inspection, or Rs. 69,426, was on account of travelling expenses, office establishments and contingencies. The cost of inspection to the Native States was Rs. 29,991 or 5·14 per cent. of their total expenditure, but in these districts the services of the Educational Inspector are given gratuitously; and a nearly similar arrangement is made in the case of some of the Deputy Inspectors whose time is divided between a British District and a Native State. In the year 1871 the cost of inspection was Rs. 1,72,525. In 1881-82, the number of schools and scholars had increased by 88 and 102 per cent. respectively, while the increased cost of inspection amounted to only 5 per cent. The increase in the number of inspecting officers therefore has been but slight; and their examination-work and epistolary correspondence may be estimated to be twice as heavy now as it was ten years ago.

The distribution of the cost of inspection between primary and secondary education is shown in the following table:—‡

Class of Institution.			British Territory.	Native States.
			Rs.	Rs.
Primary Schools (including Training Colleges.)	Cess-schools for	Boys	1,04,624	...
		Girls		
	Aided schools for	Boys	3,470	...
		Girls		
	Inspected schools for	Boys	...	26,873
		Girls		
	TOTAL		1,08,094	26,873

* Including salaries and travelling-allowances (Rs. 36,675) drawn by the Director of Public Instruction and his establishment and the amount spent on contingencies (Rs. 2,279).

† Including salaries drawn by Inspectors, Deputy Educational Inspectors and their establishments; also travelling-allowance and contingencies. Deputy Inspectors and their Assistants draw mileage and haltage and have no fixed travelling-allowance.

‡ The principle on which the distribution has been made is explained at the beginning of Chapter IV.

Class of Institutions.			British Territory.	Native States.
			Rs.	Rs.
Middle-Class Schools	Government Schools for	Boys	28,615	...
	Aided Schools for	Boys	3,922	...
		Girls		
	Inspected Schools for	Boys	...	5,862
		TOTAL	32,537	5,862
High Schools (including attached Schools and Classes.)	Government Schools for	Boys	27,703	...
	Aided Schools for	Boys	5,366	...
	Inspected Schools for	Boys	...	5,242
		TOTAL	33,069	5,242
		GRAND TOTAL	1,73,700	37,977*

* Rs. 7,986 of this sum is the proportionate value of the services rendered by Educational Inspectors in Native States at the cost of British Revenue.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

The cost of inspection.

5. In the last 10 years the number of scholars attending the schools subject to examination or inspection by the Educational Department has more than doubled, but the cost of inspection has increased by only 5 per cent. or Rs. 9,080. This sum is more than accounted for by the increased mileage-charges incurred by members of the inspecting staff while on tour, and simply represents so much additional activity on their part. The salaries of the inspecting staff amount to only 3·8 per cent. of the total expenditure on education and 12 per cent. of the provincial assignment to education. The senior Inspector with a charge that comprises 7 Collectorates and 10 Native States, and contains 1,400 schools attended by 84,000 scholars, is (at the close of his service) drawing a salary of Rs. 1,500 per mensem. The Inspector of the Northern Division, who has the direct supervision of education in 5 Collectorates, the whole of Káthiáwár, and 6 other Native States,—an area nearly as large as that of England and Wales, and containing more than 1,800 schools attended by 125,000 scholars,—draws a salary of Rs. 850 per mensem, or Rs. 50 more than a first-class subordinate judge. The Inspector of the Southern Division (after 22 years' service) is drawing a salary of Rs. 1,100 per mensem, his Inspectorate consisting of 4 Collectorates and 9 Native States, with an aggregate of 75,000 scholars. The Inspector of the North-East Division draws a salary of Rs. 750 per mensem and has an Inspectorate of 3 Collectorates containing 878 schools attended by upwards of 48,000 scholars. The services of the Inspector in the Province of Sind are remunerated by a monthly salary of Rs. 250 which is Rs. 50 per mensem less than that drawn by one of his subordinates. All these officers occupy positions of considerable trust and responsibility, and they are the chief local respresentatives of the Educational Department, who are directly associated with the collectors and with the political officers and the darbárs of the Native States. We are not of opinion, therefore, that they are either too highly remunerated, or that it would be desirable hereafter to employ any less costly agency. With the transfer of urban primary and middle schools to municipal and other local boards the inspection-duties of the Educational Inspectors will not diminish, but will rather increase; and as professional advisers to the boards it will be more than ever necessary that the Inspectors should be men of considerable tact and sympathy, as well as skilful examiners or administrators; in other words that they should be the pick of the Department, whether Europeans or Natives of India. While, then, we would deprecate any reduction in the emoluments at present drawn by the Educational Inspectors, we are equally strongly of

opinion that the duties of the Inspectorate have in some directions outgrown its present strength. That the educational system of the great Province of Sind should be entrusted to the supervision of an Inspector who is heavily weighted with the duties of another office, is an anomaly which we think should be removed. Excluding the indigenous schools there are now 20,000 children attending the schools of the Province, 6 of these institutions being high schools, 21 middle schools and 276 primary schools, many of which are scattered at wide intervals over the country, and require far more attention than can at present be given to them. If these schools are really to prosper, and education in Sind is to receive any further development, it is clearly necessary that the services of a whole-time Inspector should be secured.

The charge of each of the Deputy Educational Inspectors consists of a whole collectorate, averaging 7,648 square miles with 211 schools and 13,100 scholars. But in the Northern, North-East and Central Divisions the average number of schools allotted to each Deputy is considerably more than 200 and the number of scholars is upwards of 15,000. The salaries of these officers, excluding the half-time Deputies in the Island of Bombay, range from Rs. 125 to Rs. 200 per mensem, and in Sind and a few of the Native States the maximum is Rs. 300 or Rs. 350. The duties of the Deputy Inspectors are extremely arduous, and are year by year increasing. The powers, moreover, with which these officers are invested are considerably greater than those possessed by some of the more highly paid employés in other departments. It would appear, therefore, that any revision of their present scale of remuneration should tend rather in the direction of increase than of reduction.

Village-school visitations.

We attach the greatest importance to the visitations of the inspecting officers to the village-schools, by which they are brought into friendly intercourse with the peasantry and with the labouring classes generally. We understand, however, that the office-correspondence and other multifarious duties of inspecting officers have of late years so largely increased, that these visits to the villages are in many instances far too brief to be of much benefit either to the master or to the people. A conference of the inspecting officers could doubtless hit upon the proper solution of the difficulty, and we would recommend that the attention of the Educational Department should be invited to this suggestion.

Public service examination committees.

More than one witness before the Commission has recommended that representatives of private schools should be elected members of the committees appointed to examine candidates for the public service under Anglo-Vernacular Standard V and Vernacular Standard VI. We cordially endorse their recommendation, and we have no doubt that the services of such gentlemen as may be willing to serve on the committees would be welcomed by the Educational Department.

Inspection of girls' schools.

The supervision and examination of girls' schools is entrusted to Educational Inspectresses at Hyderabad, Ahmedabad and Poona only. We should be glad, however, to see an Inspectress of girls' schools appointed for the Island of Bombay, where private enterprise has already made most encouraging progress, but is evidently in need of the co-ordering hand of a lady of high culture and of generous sympathies.

SECTION J.—*Local-Fund Boards.*

1. We have already dealt at length with the powers of control exercised by district and táluka committees over the expenditure of the cess-funds and the cess-schools. The history of these local boards constituted under the Local Funds Act (1869), is the history of primary education in Bombay and of the cess-schools, which, to distinguish them from indigenous schools, are generally mis-named Government schools. As part of this report is passing through the Press, Government have published a Resolution No. 3583, Financial Department, dated September 19th, 1882, which somewhat enlarges the powers and alters the constitution of local-fund boards. The scheme has been approved by the Government of India who remark that "the paragraphs of the Resolution 27—53, dealing with the question of funds to be made over to local boards and the powers to be entrusted to them in respect of local works and education have evidently been carefully thought out by the Government of Bombay, and the Government of India are content to await their development in practice." These proposals are nothing more than an extension of the existing system, and as they will almost immediately take effect, we cannot do better than transcribe the necessary paragraphs below:—

17. Next for decision comes the question as to whom should be entrusted the power of electing members of the táluka local-fund committees. On full consideration of the various opinions and representations received, it appears to His Excelleney the Governor in Cauncil that the following persons should be entitled to a vote:—

(1) All persons holding or occupying land paying an annual Government assessment of not less than ₹48.

(2) All officiating revenue or police patels.

Here again it has been urged by the Poona Sárvajanik Sabhá that jurors, assessors, pleaders, and graduates should be granted a voice in the selection of the members, but Government cannot admit that such persons have any valid claim merely on the ground that they possess a general or special education to control the expenditure of funds to which possibly they contribute nothing. A vakíl *per se* has certainly no greater, probably not so much, direct interest in the construction and maintenance of roads and tanks in his táluka than has the fairly well-to-do cultivator who uses the roads for the conveyance to market of his produce and needs the tanks for the supply of water to his cattle. Nor should the education of his children and those of his neighbours be a matter of greater concern to him than it is to the average rayat, who is moreover more nearly affected by the establishment of the primary schools which are supported from local funds than is the pleader or graduate who resides at the táluka town and sends his sons to the more pretentious and advanced anglo-vernacular school. Pleaders, graduates, &c., who hold Government land or pay the requisite sum on account of the assessment will, in their capacity as holders or occupants, be entitled to a vote, but that they should be allowed a vote simply because they have received a special or University education and have passed examinations in law, medicine, mathematics or languages appears to the Governor in Council undesirable and unnecessary. The Commissioner, C. D., has recommended that a payment of Rs. 10 on account of Local Fund cess should be the qualification for the vote. The proposed limit seems, however, to be far too high. It implies the payment of a sum of ₹160 yearly as Government land-assessment, and this involves the restriction of the franchise to a comparatively small number of men in most districts, and an exceedingly small number in some. If the franchise is to be given at all, it should be granted generously, and unfettered by conditions which render it beyond the reach of the vast mass of respectable rate-payers. It may be said that the great bulk of the *contribuens plebs*, the majority of the smaller landholders, will not care for a vote and would not exercise intelligently any power conferred upon them. This may be the case, but in any event it is necessary to give the experiment the fairest and fullest trial and to furnish no opportunity or occasion for allegations, that in determining the pecuniary qualification for the franchise it has been fixed at so high a figure as to render the concession valueless, and to restrict the enjoyment of the privilege to an unduly limited number of individuals.

18. The qualification for candidature for membership of a táluka local-fund board should be the possession of unencumbered real property in the táluka of the value of not less than ₹1,000, or of other property of not lower value than ₹15,000. A like qualification should be required in the case of members appointed by the collector. The disqualifications alike for voters and members should be the same, *mutatis mutandis*, as in the case of municipal voters and Commissioners.

19. For election purposes each táluka should be divided into groups of villages corresponding in number with the number of members to be elected to the local fund committee of the particular táluka, and each group should return its own member to the táluka committee. The distribution of villages should be so arranged that the amount of land-assessment and local-fund cess paid by each of the various groups should be approximately the same. The grouping of villages should be carried out by the collector. Only persons

resident in the táluka should be eligible for election as members, but it is not essential that the member for a group of villages should be an inhabitant of any of the villages composing the group. A list of the persons in the táluka qualified to vote and to serve as members should be prepared annually by the collector, and copies of the list should be posted in the mámlatdár's kacheri and be open to public inspection. A list of all the cess-payers qualified to serve as members and of the persons entitled to vote in the town or village should be sent to each town or village and posted up in the chávdi or other public building. A central place should be selected in each group of villages, at which the votes of the voters resident in that group should be taken, and one month before the date fixed for the election the mámlatdár should sent to each voter a notice informing him of the day on which the election will be held and the place at which votes will be received. The votes of the voters then appearing in person should be recorded by the mámlatdár, or other officer appointed for the purpose by the assistant or deputy collector in charge of the táluka, and as soon as the results of the election have been ascertained the latter will report to the collector the names of the successful candidates. The names of the persons elected and of those nominated by the collector should then be notified in the *Government Gazette*.

20. The procedure in the case of the election of members of the district local fund committee will be simple. Each táluka committee will send a representative selected by his brother members. The election will take place at a special meeting of the committee held for the purpose, and the result will be communicated to the collector by the president—the assistant or deputy collector in charge of the táluka. In case of an equality of votes the choice can be determined by lot.

21. All boards, local fund and municipal, should consist of two committees, a general and a managing. The number of members on the managing committee should in no case exceed one-third of the total number of members of the board. The chairmen of both committees should be elected, the appointment being subject to the confirmation of Government, and should as a rule and when possible be non-official members. The preparation of rules for the guidance of committees, the distribution of their duties, regulation of their meetings, &c., may be entrusted to the Commissioners, who should submit for approval the rules they would propose for adoption. The head-quarters of local fund boards should be the Huzúr station or táluka towns. As regards remuneration it appears unnecessary to grant any fees or salaries to the members or chairmen of municipal boards who at present receive no money-payment. In the case of members and chairmen of local fund boards any actual travelling expenses incurred by them should be allowed, and they may further be granted an honorarium of R3 each for each meeting at which they attend, care being taken to limit the number of meetings for attendance at which they should be entitled to fees. The labourer is worthy of his hire, and it cannot be expected that men of the means and status of the ordinary local fund committee member will be willing to attend frequent meetings and to devote their time and attention to the work unless they receive some direct and tangible recompense.

24. The period for which members of municipal and local fund boards, whether elected or appointed, should serve, may be fixed at three years, but they should be eligible for re-election or re-appointment on the expiration of the term of three years. In the case of the resignation, disqualification, or death of a member before the expiration of the period for which he was appointed, a successor should be nominated or elected according as the member resigning, dying, or becoming disqualified was nominated or elected, and should serve as a member for the residue of the term of the member whom he succeeds. Chairman of committees, general or managing, should be elected for one year only, but should be eligible for re-election.

25. As regards the question of the powers to be conferred upon and exercised by boards it appears to the Governor in Council that no very extensive change is required in the case of municipal committees. Those committees should enjoy the powers they now possess, freed however, as already proposed in paragraphs 7 and 8, from the local official restraint which now checks their action. Subject to the limited control specified in paragraph 17 of the Resolution of the Government of India, dated the 18th May last each municipal board should have the entire and unfettered administration of the affairs of the municipality and the disposal of its funds in accordance with the provisions of the Act. To meet the popular wishes, to satisfy the requirements of the Government of India, and to render local self-government of reality and not merely a name, it is essential that the boards should have full powers, and be liable only to the general control and supervision of Government. In minor matters and questions of details there should be no interference from above. In like manner in the case of local fund boards the allotment and expenditure of the moneys placed at the disposal of each board should, subject to the provisions of a new law as to the purposes on which local funds must and may be expended, and to a general power of supervision to be reserved to Government, be left entirely in the hands of the boards.

27. As concerns funds the municipal and local boards will in the first place have at their disposal the various funds they now have.

31. The income of the local fund committee of a district is at present derived from the following sources :

(1) the one-anna cess, of which two-thirds are devoted to roads, communications, dharmshalas, water-supply and other useful public objects, and one-third is expended on education;
(2) the ferry fund, including the proceeds of ferries whether farmed or managed departmentally and of fines inflicted under the Ferries Act;
(3) the toll-fund;
(4) the cattle-pound fund;
(5) the sand and quarry fee fund;
(6) license-fees for the sale of poisons;
(7) contributions towards works of public utility given by rayats;
(8) grants given for specific purposes from provincial revenues.

(Here follow rules regarding public works expenditure which it is not necessary for the purposes of our report to repeat.)

36. The question of local self-government will now be considered in respect of educational matters in relation to (1) municipalities and (2) district and taluka boards, but it should be noted that the question of female education is reserved for future and separate consideration.

37. It is necessary first to refer to Government Resolution No. 414 of 23rd March last, by which it was decided that the first experiment should be limited to three selected municipalities, namely, Bombay, Poona and Ahmadabad. The Director of Public Instruction was directed to offer to these municipalities the management of primary schools, together with grants from the provincial treasury, about equal in each place to the provincial payments by which the school-fees and other local receipts are at present supplemented, but on certain conditions, of which one was, that the expenditure on the schools from sources other than the provincial grant was to bear a ratio to that grant not yet determined.

38. The result of the negotiations between the Director of Public Instruction and the three municipalities has not yet been reported to Government, and in the meantime the Government of India has expressed its wish that the experiment should be greatly enlarged. The Governor in Council has therefore decided (1) that the negotiations directed in Government Resolution No. 414 of 23rd March last, should be entered into with all the ten existing city municipalities in the Presidency, and with the other town municipalities shortly to be raised to the status of city municipalities, and (2) that the management of anglo-vernacular as well as primary schools should be included in the offer.

39. As regards high schools the transfer of their management to the municipal boards is a step upon which the Governor in Council will not determine, until it has been considered specially with reference to the stipulations which are necessary to maintain the status and interests of these flourishing and promising institutions. For the present, therefore, no change will be made in their administration.

40. Referring to the condition as yet undefined, of the ratio which the provincial grant to municipal (primary schools) should bear to the expenditure on such schools from other sources, it occurs to the Governor in Council, to note that the whole question of the distribution of the present provincial grant to primary education requires reconsideration, before a commencement can properly be made in the transfer of schools from State to municipal or other local management. The present distribution is founded on the principle of regarding the whole Presidency as an educational unit, and whereas the varying circumstances and dispositions of different portions of the Presidency community have led to inequality in the funds locally forthcoming for primary education in different places, it has been left to the Educational Department to ensure an even progress by supplying deficiencies from the provincial revenues. But a first consequence of breaking up the Presidency into a number of educational units for the purpose of local management will be a close examination of the fairness of the way in which the provincial grant is distributed, as affecting the amounts that must be raised in different places, whether for the maintenance or the extension of schools.

41. Excluding the sum expended in Bombay, the provincial grant amounts to Rs. 2,63,919, and of this sum Rs. 1,74,822 are expended on schools in municipal towns and Rs. 89,097 only on schools in non-municipal towns and villages throughout the Presidency. The latter schools are mainly supported by the local cess, but the inhabitants of municipal towns pay no educational rate analogous to the cess. Municipalities indeed make discretional assignments from their general incomes for education, but these assignments, with a few exceptions, are unequal in rate, and generally small, if not niggardly. Moreover, these assignments are frequently not for primary education, but for English classes in primary schools. Many municipalities make no assignments for education at all. If note be taken of the ratio which the provincial grant bears to the funds raised locally, whether in the shape of cess and school-fees, in the case of districts, or of the cess, school-fees, municipal grants, interest on endowments, and popular contributions in the case of municipal towns, it will be found that the provincial grant amounts to barely $\frac{1}{3}$ of the funds locally raised in the districts, and to rather more than twice the funds locally raised in the municipal towns.

42. It further appears that not only do schools in municipal towns generally obtain so much more than their proper share of the provincial grant, but actually in some places they obtain, besides, a portion of the cess-money raised in the districts beyond their limits. Thus we find the whole allotment from provincial revenues being an insufficient supplement to the local receipts to meet the expenses of schools in the municipal towns, no less than Rs. 24,027

are taken besides from the district cess-collections to make good the deficiency. And again in Broach, the former provincial grant having been reduced to provide for the wants of other districts, R 8,000 of district cess-money are taken to make both ends meet in paying for the schools in municipal towns. Dharwar has also been mentioned by the Director of Public Instruction as another district in which the same thing has been done, and the Dharwar municipality makes no contribution whatever to the cost of Dharwar schools.

43. The Director of Public Instruction should therefore be requested to consider and report in what way the Provincial grant should be redistributed on equitable principles with a view to the clear understanding by each municipality invited to take charge of its schools of the proportion of the provincial grant available for its assistance, and of the remaining liability which it will have to meet through economy, or increase of taxation. In towns it will probably be found that a given sum of money can be made to go much further in providing education by the substitution of a system of municipal aid to privately managed schools, for the system of direct maintenance of schools. But whatever means may be adopted for the attainment of the desired end, the Governor in Council will be prepared to assist by spreading the reduction of the provincial grant to its proper amount over a number of years, instead of insisting on such reduction being carried out at once.

44. In regard to the smaller municipalities other than those mentioned above in paragraph 38, the Governor in Council trusts that in a short time it may be found expedient to entrust to several of them the same control of primary and anglo-vernacular education, as in the case of the present city municipalities. In the meantime all the present town municipalities should be vested *mutatis mutandis* with the control provided for taluka committees in the following paragraphs.

45. Referring, lastly, to the management of schools, primary and anglo-vernacular, in the non-municipal towns and villages throughout the districts in this Presidency, note is first taken of the "cardinal principle" laid down by the Government of India "as essential to the success of self-government in any shape," namely, "that the jurisdiction of the primary boards must be so limited in area as to ensure both local knowledge and local interest on the part of each of the members."

46. It has been decided that the smallest area for local self-government is to be the taluka, and that the taluka committee is to be composed of the assistant collector and mamlatdar (*ex-officio*), of landholders to be elected or nominated, a representative inamdar, and a delegate, in some places, from the municipality of the taluka town. And the Governor in Council can find little encouragement to believe that, speaking generally, the members of taluka committees will be found either competent or inclined to undertake the management of schools throughout a taluka. It would in fact be impossible to ensure local knowledge and local interest on the part of non-official members of rural boards, unless a separate board were established for every village.

47. In these circumstances two courses have been submitted for the consideration of Government—(1) that the management of non-municipal schools throughout a whole district should be entrusted to the district committee, or rather to a school-board independent of such committee, the members of which school-board, being specially chosen for interest in educational matters, would not necessarily be also members of the committee; (2) that the management of schools in each taluka should be divided between the taluka committee and the district committee by rules distinguishing the matters which could most suitably be entrusted to each.

48. The plan first mentioned is founded on no principle of representation, or of local knowledge and interest. It amounts merely to the transfer of school-administration from the State Educational Department to a school-board of native gentlemen who will have other occupations, and little or no opportunity of informing themselves personally of the condition and wants of the district in educational matters.

49. The second plan does not commend itself to the Governor in Council as convenient, and it would needlessly interfere with the principle of making the taluka committees as independent as possible.

50. It appears to the Governor in Council that for the present it will be the best plan to leave to the Educational Department the actual teaching, discipline, and management of schools, including the appointment and dismissal of masters, and the grants of leave of absence. It is not to be expected that matters involving such constant trouble will be properly looked after by the unpaid and often unwilling agency of a taluka committee, unless the work is left to the *ex-officio* members. But while spared this trouble, it is possible to assign to these committees a very real and large control of education in their talukas, easily exercised at occasional meetings in such matters as:—

(1) The determination of the places at which schools shall be established, including the transfer or abolition of existing schools.

(2) The determination of the class of each school in point of cost, selection being from classes recognised by the Educational Department.

(3) The determination of the standard of teaching in each school, the selection being from standards recognized by the Department.

(4) The rate of fees to be charged to the pupils in each school whether children of cess-payers, or non-cesspayers.

(5) The number of free scholars in each school.

(6) The assignment of money to be expended through the Educational Department on grants-in-aid, in places where it may be decided to rely on privately-managed schools.

(7) The assignment of sums necessary to provide accommodation for primary schools whether by building, purchase or hire, and the determination of the way in which such accommodation shall be provided wherever wanted.

(8) The assignment of provision for secondary education, but for this the sanction of the Director of Public Instruction should be necessary.

51. The Governor in Council is accordingly pleased to direct that on the revised constitution of the táluka committees being effected, rules should be put in force vesting in them the powers above detailed.

56. The last point for consideration is with reference to the nature and extent of the power and control to be reserved to and exercised by Government in connection with the action and proceedings of local and municipal boards. This point has already been touched upon incidentally in several of the preceding paragraphs of this Resolution, and it seems unnecessary now further to refer to it at any very great length. Government clearly must possess the powers mentioned in paragraph 17 of the Resolution of the Government of India, dated May 18th, 1882. It must have a general authority to modify or set aside altogether the orders and proceedings of boards on subjects of importance when such orders and proceedings are obviously unjust, impolitic, improper, opposed to the public interest, injurious to the public health, safety or convenience, or prejudicial to the Government revenues. It should also have the power to supersede absolutely a board for gross and continued neglect of duty and this power it should, in the opinion of the Governor in Council, for the reasons already assigned in paragraph 23, be entitled to exercise without the previous sanction of the Government of India. In all minor matters the interference of Government should be minimised to the utmost possible extent. When conferring greatly increased powers on municipal and local boards it is necessary to allow those powers subject to the conditions above specified and to the following stipulations—

1st, that no loan shall be raised without the previous sanction of Government;

2nd, that no new tax shall be imposed without such sanction;

3rd, that no existing tax shall be abolished or decreased without such sanction;

4th, that no municipality shall be allowed to abolish itself without such sanction;

5th, that no property belonging to any local fund or municipal board shall be alienated without such sanction,

6th, that no local fund or municipal employé in receipt of a salary of Rs. 100 or upwards shall be dismissed without the sanction of the Commissioner of the Division,

7th, that in the case of all pensionable servants, an appeal shall lie to Government from an order of a board directing dismissal, suspension or degradation,

8th, that without the previous sanction of Government, no interference by any board in any matter involving a religious question or prejudices of caste or creed, or affecting the public peace or the public food or water-supply or the public health shall be permitted.

Under the system which has been set forth in these paragraphs, it will be observed that a very substantial control over primary education will vest in the various *local boards, and it is probable that their exercise of such powers will be assured to, as well as imposed upon, the boards by legislative enactment. The important question occurs to us,—What will be the position of indigenous or privately-managed schools in reference to the boards? In order to answer the question a preliminary question must be answered,—Are these local boards such "local bodies" as the Despatch of 1854 contemplated, when the principle of the transfer of schools was affirmed? If they are, and we are inclined to regard them as such, can Government not only transfer to them the cess-schools (which are the schools from which the State withdraws), but also the responsibility of aiding other primary schools (whether private, indigenous, or managed by societies) which are not State schools but are working in the same area? On the whole we think it is desirable that the board's responsibilities

Position of privately-managed primary schools.

* In the remarks which follow we include under the term local boards both local-fund boards and municipal boards. On the whole question as to the interpretation of the phrase "local bodies" we have expressed our opinion in section L.

should extend over the whole area of primary instruction. If the local and municipal boards are not local bodies in the sense of the Despatch, Government can of course impose upon them and the funds transferred to them any obligations it pleases; but if they are, Government must provide additional funds with the additional responsibilities. That, however, is merely a matter of account; and without going further into it, we may proceed to justify the principle of the transfer of the whole department of primary education which we advocate, only premising that upon the interpretation of the phrase "local bodies" depends the settlement of *accounts* between Government and the local boards. In one case Government will hand over the cess-funds and the assignment of provincial grants-in-aid to which the cess-funds are entitled, and merely ask the boards to maintain and extend the cess-schools at pleasure and at their own expense. That will complete the transfer. Then, as regards other schools now aided by Government, a further transfer of ways and means will be made, and with them the responsibility for aiding these schools will rest on the boards. In fact there will be two simultaneous but separate transfers, the withdrawal of Government from its cess-schools being one, and its withdrawal from the aided primary schools being the second. Each transfer will involve the transfer of specific funds. In the other case, the local boards are not regarded as "local bodies," and the Government can transfer all primary schools whether cess-schools or aided schools, and require the boards to make provision for them all out of the cess-funds and the provincial assignment.

In paragraph 31 (8) Government refer to grants given for specific purposes from provincial revenues as part of the fund transferred to boards. This phrase is wide enough to include provision for aided primary schools. If it is intended to include such provision, then we think that clause 6 of paragraph 50 must be revised. It should not be left to the discretion of the boards "to assign provision for grants-in-aid in places where they decide to rely on privately-managed schools." Legal enactment should supersede discretion. Private enterprise should be protected by law against any refusal of the boards to recognize it. If any school can earn a grant for the secular results of its teaching, it is discharging part of the functions of providing a local area with primary instruction, with which the board is charged. The board is only trustee for funds contributed for the purpose of obtaining special results, and if those results are partly secured by private schools (no matter what their religious denomination may be) the board is bound to pay for them. It may be a question whether it should pay for them out of one fund or another, but it should be compelled by legislative enactment to take cognizance of actual results, and reward them according to the scale prescribed by Government.

The only other alternative is to leave the Director of Public Instruction with funds for the administration of the grant-in-aid system. But whence are the funds to be obtained? Are the boards to supply funds which they are not allowed to administer? If so, the transfer will be incomplete, and dual authority will lead to complications. Again, we have seen that the towns now absorb more than their share of funds. Private enterprise is at present, and always will be, mainly confined to the towns. If the Director is to pay for results in towns without any limitation to their extent, not only will the previous inequality of distribution be continued; but further we may ask, what is to prevent the municipal board from resting content with his extension of primary education and neglecting to develop their own system for which the municipality has to pay? We hope that one result of transferring to boards the cess-funds will be to create a spirit of rivalry between one district and another and one town and another in extending and developing primary education. But any interference from without, or any external support will be fatal to this rivalry and to the spirit of independence which the local board should feel. We think, therefore, that the boards' control should extend over the whole field of primary instruction, and that they should manage aided schools as well as cess schools. Besides the advantage of undivided control there will thus be gained a second advantage. The boards will be educated in toleration, and will gain experience by watching different systems. If they find that the indigenous schools are better than their own, they will extend education by encouraging such institutions. If they observe that an aided school obtains special popularity, they will investigate the cause. There may at first be some risk that their authority will be abused to crush out

private enterprise by competition, but that risk is involved in the system of withdrawal, and as public opinion advances, a spirit of fair play and toleration will be created, which will minimize the danger.

Female education.

2. As regards female education, we are convinced that no success can be expected unless the cause is entrusted to sympathetic management. We prefer therefore that the Department should continue to administer girl's schools, until private local bodies express a wish to take charge of them. We trust to the grant-in-aid system mainly for extending female education. Each religious class of the community prefers its own system, and we would encourage the progress of female education in any channels in which it naturally flows. If local fund committees and municipal boards show an interest in the matter we have no objection to transferring girls' schools to their care, but their interest must be catholic and not confined to any particular class of the community to the exclusion of others. In promoting female education, however, we look rather to assistance from special bodies, such as castes, or religious classes, rather than to quasi-public bodies which represent the whole community and not its different sections. The extension of female education depends on the whole social position of women, and is part of a great social problem which each community must solve in its own fashion. There are abundant proofs that some sections of the community, such as the Parsis, are already prepared to carry through the fullest reforms in this direction, whilst other classes will lag behind. If each section of society is to wait until a general advance along the whole line of Indian society takes place, there will be a needless sacrifice of power, and delay in carrying out a social reform which promises important results in the moral and social progress of India.

SECTION K.—*Functions of Municipal Bodies with regard to the Maintenance and Control of Schools.*

Municipal income and constitution.

1. Following the general principle of this report, we first explain the present relations which exist between municipalities and education, and then proceed to offer our recommendations. Slight alterations and progress in the development of municipal institutions have taken place since 1880-81, but as the complete reports for 1881-82 have not yet been received, it is better to describe the state of affairs which existed in 1881. Exclusive of Bombay there were 163 municipalities in 1880-81. Ten of these were city municipalities and 3 temporary. Six of the rest to which are called town municipalities, contained less than 2,000 inhabitants. The total municipal population amounted to 1,844,182. Outside the city of Bombay the administrative committees consisted of 2,476 members, of whom 1,621 were private or non-official members. The annual income of the Bombay city municipality was R32,51,869 and of all the mofussil municipalities R27,26,332, making a total of R59,78,201. The year 1880-81 closed with a municipal balance of R22,96,486, of which about one-third belonged to Bombay city. The Bombay municipality maintains its own police, and receives a contribution from Government of R90,000. The police elsewhere are maintained by Government, but Government may call on the municipality to defray half the cost of its police up to one-fifth of the municipal income. The total municipal expenditure in the Southern Division on police was less than R500; elsewhere it was much greater. But under the recent orders of Government municipalities will now be relieved from all charges on account of police. So far, however, as Bombay is concerned, the relief will not be considerable, and education will receive little or no assistance from the alteration.

Important changes in municipal constitution and functions are under consideration, but it is not necessary to dwell on them here. It has already been explained that the Bombay Municipal Act and the Mofussil Municipal Act permit, but do not compel, municipalities to spend a portion of their revenues upon educational institutions of any class. It is interesting to inquire into the actual results of this permissive legislation. In 1881-82 they contributed to the support of schools the sum of R80,423, of which R39,842 were for primary male and female education in departmental or aided schools. The municipality of Sukkur in Sind is the only municipality which has taken primary education under its entire care, and received grants from Government under the ordinary rule for payments by results. There are three schools in this municipality attended by 408 pupils, on account of which the municipal grant was R3,659. How unevenly municipal grants for primary education are distributed over the whole Presidency outside the city of Bombay will appear from this statement :—

DIVISION.	Municipal grant.	Percentage of total expenditure on Primary Schools.
	R A. P.	
Sind Division	15,278 0 9	22·9
Northern Division	5,269 0 0	8·2
North-East Division	3,747 8 9	7·8
Central Division	7,428 10 7	8·8
Southern Division	2,505 0 0	5·0
TOTAL .	34,228 4 1	10·9

The most liberal mofussil municipalities are those in the Shikarpur and Hyderabad districts and at Sehwan in Sind, those in the Sholapur district of the Deccan, and the city of Surat. The great city of Ahmedabad, otherwise exceptionally liberal in the matter of education, only contributed R425 to primary education, and Poona only granted R600. These statistics are sufficient to show what has already been explained at page 102, that the munipalities are content to pay for primary education out of the agricultural cess fund, which is contributed by villages

outside their limits; that they hardly recognize their duties to provide education for the masses; and that the sense of duty which they do feel is stronger in Sind than in the other divisions, but is particularly weak in Poona, where it ought to be strongest. We have shown that, excluding Bombay, the municipalities last year only contributed 10 per cent. of the cost of primary education in the departmental schools only. It is only necessary to add that their contribution to these elementary schools was but 1·3 per cent. of their annual income.

Financial position of municipalities.

Closely connected with this subject, and bound up with the recommendations which follow, is the question whether the financial position of municipalities can be considered sound and assured. In 1880-81 the income derived from octroi, and the incidence of octroi per head in each administrative division of the Presidency, was as follows :—

Division.	Proportion of octroi to whole Income.	Incidence of octroi per head.
		R A. P.
Sind	93 per cent.	1 11 5
Northern Division	59 „ „	0 13 8
Bombay City	40 „ „	1 2 6
Central Division	59 „ „	0 11 0
Southern Division	59 „ „	0 6 10

The liberality of municipalities in the matter of education bears a direct ratio to the revenue they derive from octroi. The incidence of octroi is very high in the following municipalities :—

Sukkur.	Barsi.
Karachi,	Keti.
Hyderabad.	Surat.
Tando Adam.	Sholapur,

and these municipalities contribute most liberally to primary education. It is yet a question whether self-government will be restricted in the matter of taxation, and measures taken to prevent octroi becoming a transit-tax. If there should be such measures, and they should result in a reduction of municipal income, then it is reasonable to suppose that municipalities would become more reluctant to assist education than formerly, unless legislation compels them to do so. The salient facts as they stand may therefore be summed up. Municipalities are not compelled but permitted to provide funds for edacation; at present, although their income exceeds 27 lakhs outside Bombay, they only give one per cent. to primary education; their funds are largely dependent on octroi, and the most liberal municipalities are those which are most dependent on a source of revenue to the continuance of which there are grave economic objections. Except Sukkur, in which the incidence of octroi exceeds R3 per head, no municipality at present takes charge of primary schools.

Transfer of primary education to city municipalities.

On this state of affairs has supervened the scheme of local self-government, which involves the assignment to municipal committees of several items of expenditure and revenue. In pursuance of these orders the Government of Bombay have determined to transfer to the 10 city municipalities and 14 other town municipalities, which will shortly be raised to that status, the entire management of primary and anglo-vernacular middle schools, together with grants from the provincial treasury about equal in each place to the provincial payments by which the school-fees and other local receipts are at present supplemented, but on certain conditions. The orders of Government have been given in the last section. The offer made by Government has as yet only been accepted by the Bombay municipality, and the transfer is not completed. As regards other municipalities, they are to be invested with the powers which are to be conferred on taluka committees, and at present are more or less enjoyed by district committees. These powers were given *in extenso* in the last section Many

points of detail have yet to be settled, and therefore, beyond alluding to the intention of Government, we proceed at once to suggest the measures which appear to us feasible and necessary.

Recommendations.

2. At the outset, without repeating our arguments given in Section A, we repeat our conviction that the fund for primary edution in towns should be distinct in financial arrangements, as well as administration, from the rural funds. The fund should not merely be charged with the maintenance of Government or cess-schools, but also with the whole scheme of primary education involving assistance to indigeneous or private schools. We have given our reasons for this opinion in the last section. We are inclined to exclude female education from these arrangements at first, unless any municipality honourably volunteered to take charge of it. Although the prejudice against female education may be gradually diminishing, still the success of girls' schools requires something more than toleration; it requires genuine sympathy and encouragement. Private enterprise, moreover (especially where the schools are founded, as many Muhammadan, Sikh and missionary schools are, with a religious intention), would require legal protection; and the rights of all institutions which taught the municipal population and proved themselves efficient by secular tests should be guaranteed by legislative enactment. At first the grant-in-aid rules of the Department should be accepted by municipalities, and the inspection should be provided by the State, but alterations in the rules should be permitted, if they were duly passed by the municipal boards and approved by Government. With these exceptions, the control of municipal bodies should extend to the institution or transfer of schools, regulation of the pay of masters, the appointment of certificated teachers, the dismissal of masters subject to the approval of the Educational Inspector in the town municipalities, the course of studies selected from the standards of the Department, and the regulation of fees, scholarships and free-studentships. The rights of all municipal residents, even low-caste boys, to receive instruction, should be secured by law, and it would be necessary to give Government the right to intervene if the town-boards seriously neglected their duty or ignored either the rights of all classes or of private enterprise.

As regards funds we have already expressed the opinion that unless the provincial grant to rural schools is largely raised so as to reduce the existing inequality, municipalities must be content to accept the management of existing schools without the corresponding provision, which is only made by robbing the cess-schools in the villages of their own contributions and the share in the grant-in-aid to which they are entitled. In regard to the Government proposal, that the Government grant should not be more than half of the expenditure from other sources, the Bombay municipality have observed that in the event of any large development of primary education, the municipality should be entitled to a corresponding increase of grant. This condition is perfectly reasonable, *provided* funds are forthcoming to aid the development of rural education in equal proportion. We do not think that Government would be justified in dealing with any extension of urban education apart from the claims of rural schools. The Government of India Resolution No. 60, dated February 11th, 1871, laid down a sound principle applicable alike to urban and rural schools.

Under that system the State contribution was limited to one-half of the aggregate contributious from all other sources, or one-third of the total expenditure in the school concerned. We think, therefore, that the terms of this Resolution should be strictly enforced, and towns should not receive any increase until rural funds have been assisted in the same proportion. The towns are rich and the villages poor. The masses reside rather in the latter than in the former, and although their claims may find less forcible representation in the scattered districts than in the towns with their political organizations, they are claims founded on equity and justice which Government as trustees for the people are bound to regard.

At first the municipal schools would remain under the present system of inspection and direction, and we would not make any demands on municipal towns on that account. But if the large city municipalities wished to organize

their own system of inspection, every consideration should be shown to their wishes. The State must, however, retain the power of supervising and watching the municipal administration of education. If separate funds are assigned for administering the grant-in-aid system it would be necessary to see that these funds were properly spent.

At present we are not inclined to transfer high schools and colleges to municipal control. We are even inclined to doubt if any municipality would desire their transfer. But even if they did, it is not impossible that a tendency may be shown to concentrate efforts on extending higher education to the injury of the instruction of the masses. Such a tendency already exists in one municipality in the Northern Division, and might be expected to develop in others. Municipal self-government may, in some cases, become the government of the town-population by a particular class, and further experience is required before its full tendencies and effects on the whole scheme of education can be tested. The head masters of high schools are at present men holding a high social position, and their subordination to municipal committees might be premature. The development of higher education, not merely in connection with the University but also in regard to high practical and industrial or technical education, requires not only the direction of the best and most experienced intelligence, but also a central direction. The capacities of municipalities vary immensely, and between Kolába or Kárwár and Poona there is the greatest difference in administrative power. In administering primary education this power will be tested and educated, and the extension of control over education can only proceed with safety after some experience of the results attending the transfer of primary education has been gained. There is a further objection to the transfer of high schools to municipal boards. The high school although situated in municipal limits is not a local institution. It is the district-school as well as the town-school. In its administration there might be practical difficulties, and possibly a conflict of opinion between the district and municipal boards. Until the new constitution has had time to gain public confidence, it might be advisable to avoid all risk of such a conflict.

SECTION L.—*Withdrawal of Government from the direct management of Schools or Colleges.*

1. The subject of this section is so important that, before we proceed to show what action has been taken by the Government of Bombay, or to express any opinions of our own on the subject, we consider it necessary to state clearly what we conceive to be the intentions and policy of the Home Government in regard to the withdrawal of their Education Department from the direct management of schools and colleges. We reproduce paragraph 62 of the Education Despatch No. 49, dated 19th July 1854, and we have printed in italics the parts to which we shall call especial attention.

"We look forward to the time when any general system of education *entirely provided by Government* may be discontinued, with the gradual advance of the system of grants-in-aid, and when *many* of the existing Government institutions, especially those of the higher order, may be safely closed, or *transferred to the management of local bodies under the control of, and aided by, the State.* But it is far from our wish to check the spread of education in the slightest degree by the abandonment of a single school to probable decay: and we therefore entirely confide in your discretion, and in that of the different local authorities, while keeping this object steadily in view, to *act with caution,* and to be guided by special reference to the *particular circumstances* which affect the demand for education in different parts of India."

In the Despatch No. 4, dated 7th April 1859, which reviewed the operation of the orders contained in the Despatch of 1854, the conditions of the grant-in-aid system were recited in paragraph 34: and the advantages of promoting a spirit of self-reliance by weakening the habit of dependence on Government were insisted on in paragraph 55. A clear division was then drawn between "individuals or classes who require more than elementary education, and may as a general rule be left to exert themselves to procure it with or without the assistance of Government," and the supply of vernacular education to the mass of the population "which should be provided by the direct instrumentality of the officers of Government" (paragraph 50).

The principle of withdrawal.

We understand these orders to contemplate a withdrawal partially of funds and entirely of management. The orders apply especially to higher education, and are modified in regard to the vernacular education of the masses. The withdrawal may be in favour of local or municipal boards, or even local associations of native gentlemen which possess no legal sanction to their constitution. But the withdrawal is to be—

(i) Gradual.

(ii) Justified by local circumstances.

(iii) Partial or conditional.

(i).—It is to be gradual, because the Secretary of State does not wish "to abandon any institution to decay." The possession of such earnestness and efficiency by any local association, as would alone justify the withdrawal of Government in its favour, cannot be hastily assumed. It is a process of growth rather than an act of creation. When the spirit of local enterprise has gained strength, then it may be trusted with the responsibility of managing higher education.

(ii).—Whilst the transfer must be gradual and not premature, care must be taken not to assume that a policy which is suited to one part of India is suited to another. India is a geographical expression, which includes within common limits and under a common name provinces that differ widely in degree of civilization and progress. A perception of this fact renders it necessary to inquire specially into local circumstances. In one part of India there may be a net-work of indigenous schools capable of providing a sound and complete elementary education. In Bombay there is nothing of the sort; and this fact is remarkably emphasised by the vernacular which contains no local or special word in its vocabulary for distinguishing an indigenous from a Government school. In one part of India the progress of anglicized feeling has

created an effective demand for English education, and the demand has called into life an adequate supply of English teachers. In Bombay there are several districts in which, if the high school and its feeder were closed, no other school could take its place. Religious as well as social peculiarities must be studied. The withdrawal is to be conditional. The rights of all castes to instruction, and of all religions to toleration, must be guarded. The surrender of a Government school or college to private management implies the recognition of these rights. Experience, however, proves that all the population of India are not swayed by the same liberal sentiments.*

(iii.)—Local society must be sufficiently educated to comply with the conditions of transfer. The contract is bilateral. The association will receive charge of a flourishing school able to earn a liberal grant, and the payment of that grant will be secured to it as long as it is able to earn it. The association, however, must conform to rules. The State retires from management but not from general control, which involves inspection, and the enforcement of such rules as to admission of all classes and religions to the institution, and other matters, as may be settled.

At the outset a question of extreme importance arises,—Are municipal and local fund boards "local bodies" in the sense of paragraph 62 which we have quoted above?

Are municipal and local boards "local bodies"?

2. We have said that we consider that the withdrawal may be in favour of municipal or local boards. These are something more than associations of native gentlemen, and are the outcome of public rather than private enterprise. They are quasi-public bodies. Still, we presume that the policy of the Secretary of State was not opposed to the practice in England, where national education has been managed by local public bodies entrusted with local funds. Purely local rates and cesses as well as local fees are in the main private resources so far as the State is concerned. As such they are entitled to grants-in-aid. We presume, therefore, that the policy inculcated by the Secretary of State would be attained if rural or urban boards undertook the management of schools or colleges, raising their resources locally and receiving grants-in-aid by results, submitting their schools to inspection and to the general control of Government, and for the rest appointing their own masters and making their own arrangements for their payment and pensions. If there is no fundamental objection in treating local fund committees or municipal boards as local bodies, then it is necessary to inquire on what principle the State should give its aid.

We premise that the cess-funds or the municipal contributions together with school-fees are local resources. These, then, are not the aid given by the State, but rather the private contributions which the State is bound to assist. The State can assist in one of two ways. Either the local boards may claim that the cess-schools or the town-schools should be examined by the department annually for grants-in-aid by results; or else the State may give a lump-assignment which must bear some proportion to local resources. The rural cess-fund and the municipal fund would in the latter case severally receive a proportion, which might be one-third of the expenditure. If aid is given on the former principle the great strength of the Bombay system will at once be manifest, and its higher standards of primary education rewarded. But the State will have to pay much more than it now assigns, and it would probably be necessary to make a demand on Imperial revenues. If, however, the State cannot grant aid by results, it must contribute a fair proportion as a lump grant-in-aid, which ought to be separately assigned to the urban and the rural fund. A further question now arises,—with the income so calculated are the local and municipal boards to take charge of indigenous and other aided schools within their respective areas? We think that they

* Ráo Sáheb Bhujangráo K. Huilgole in Answer 5 to Mr. Lee-Warner's question stated:
"Recently some Mhár boys from the school of the regiment stationed in Dhárwár were sent to the high school, which they were qualified to enter. On their admission, 80 boys, all Bráhmans or Lingáyats, left the school, and have not returned as yet. Mr. Lele opened a high school for them."

must be entrusted with this work, but that they will require an additional assignment. The management of Government or cess-schools will be transferred to them, but the aided schools will remain under their own private or local management. We think the local bodies charged with the cess-schools should also be charged with the duty of aiding the private schools. This involves a withdrawal of Government not from the management of schools, but from the responsibility of granting aid. It is an extension of the principle laid down by the Secretary of State, but practically it seems to us inevitable. Whilst Government retained the management of cess-schools and the administration of aid to private schools it could co-order the two agencies. If it abandons control over the former, its administration of the latter will become complicated and irregular. Therefore, in withdrawing its direct connection with one agency for primary education we think the State should sever its connection with the other. This appears only a natural corollary to the partial withdrawal from primary education which Government have effected by their entire withdrawal from the cess-schools.

3. These observations assume that local fund boards and municipal boards are "local bodies" in the sense of paragraph 62 of the Despatch of 1854. In that case the withdrawal of Government is an accomplished fact, and in order to be complete, requires only the supplementary measure we have suggested. But it is sometimes argued that these quasi-public bodies are not such local bodies as the State should recognize. If this view is correct, we proceed to inquire whether the withdrawal of Government from primary education in favour of any other bodies which at present exist is practicable. We are well aware that it would be a profitable speculation for any individual or corporation to take over the cess-schools, with their fees and local cesses and administer them on a grant-in-aid principle. The efficiency and standard of primary instruction is so much higher in Bombay than in Bengal, that the 242,703 boys attending the cess-schools in this Presidency would earn more by results than the 880,937* boys who are returned as attending the primary indigenous schools in Bengal. But we see no advantage in a transfer of that sort. Economy would not be consulted by such a speculation. Apart from the local boards, and dismissing the idea of a speculative transfer, there remain no local bodies who can manage these schools. We dismiss the crude suggestion that the schools should be closed to make way for indigenous schools. We see no reason why indigenous schools should not be encouraged by grants-in-aid, whether paid by the State or paid by the local boards from municipal or local resources. But Bombay has out-grown the indigenous schoolmaster, and requires something more in quantity or quality than can be learnt in the indigenous school. The cess-payers have a right to spend their money as they please, and if they consider it better to maintain and train their own schoolmasters, rather than trust to the chance of obtaining an itinerant and untrained pedagogue, they should be left to adopt their own system. It is a travesty of private enterprise to maintain that popular contributions given for education must be frittered away in small doles of Rs. 10 to a number of ill-educated and ill-supervised teachers, rather than expended on the maintenance of a smaller number of efficient teachers.

If local boards are not "local bodies" the transfer must be delayed.

As regards primary education, then, we consider that a transfer of control, subject to conditions of inspection and direction, to municipal boards is in effect a withdrawal of Government in favour of local bodies. If that view is correct, the withdrawal has been accomplished. If, however, the view is incorrect we fall back on the Despatch of 1859, and consider that it is desirable for the State, or at least quasi-public bodies, to undertake the education of the masses, and we see no other agency which can be entrusted with the work.

3. The case of withdrawal from high schools and colleges is different. This question is not complicated by the consideration that cess-funds or private resources chiefly maintain the schools, which in reality only receive from Government

Withdrawal from secondary education premature.

* In 1880-81 the number of boys and girls who passed in the primary and middle school vernacular examination in Bengal appears to have been 17,632. In Bombay last year 89,453 children passed in all heads of their respective standards.

a grant-in-aid far below what they would earn for themselves under the result system. The high schools and most of the colleges owe their existence to the State, and the State can as a rule withdraw its connection with the institution when it pleases. In Bombay and Poona, however, there are institutions which grew out of endowments or attachments of funds, and to the maintenance of which the public faith is more or less pledged. Wherever there is a high school or college there is also a municipality, and if municipal boards are regarded as "local bodies," they suggest a powerful agency in whose favour Government may one day retire. But the Secretary of State proposed a gradual withdrawal, and a step in that direction will have been taken if the experiment of entrusting municipal boards with elementary schools proves successful. There seems to us no advantage in forcing a change, which at present would be extremely unpopular with every section of society, and would not relieve Government of any large expenditure. We have shown how moderate the establishment of colleges and high schools is, and their efficiency would, we believe, enable many of them under their present management to earn more under the result system than their net cost. We see no reason why the Bombay and Poona municipalities should not one day offer to undertake the control of their high schools, but until they do so, we would not precipitate a transfer, which will be more acceptable, if granted in response to a demand, than if forced on the people in opposition to their wishes.

We are unanimously of opinion that except municipal boards there are no other private agencies which would be competent to manage the present high schools or colleges. Private enterprise amongst the natives as well as missionary enterprise is fairly active in Poona and Bombay. We desire to see it strengthened in every way. We have proposed that it should be liberally assisted by results as a matter of legal right; we would recognise trained teachers who could pass the training college examinations, although they had gone through a course of training outside the college; we would give a favourable consideration to any proposals which local enterprise might bring forward to improve the condition of aided schools or colleges. Aided institutions should be treated as part of the whole scheme of education, and their position honourably recognised as possible successors to the State schools and colleges. But until private enterprise has not only extended, but extended so widely as to create a competition between similar schools under different management, we should not be prepared to run the risk of surrendering a college or district high school "to probable decay." Any extension of the Government system except on the grant-in-aid principle should be arrested, as soon as each district has been provided with one high school and its necessary ancillary institutions. But until education has taken more firm root, and well-managed aided-schools have proved the vitality of private enterprise, we think it premature to close or transfer any of the existing institutions of the higher order.

The principle of withdrawal may be re-affirmed.

But whilst we are unable to define the date on which the Government high schools or colleges can be closed, the methods of withdrawal may be clearly indicated. Municipalities may be encouraged to look forward to an increase of their responsibilities, and urged to perfect their administration of primary schools. Legislation may define the relation between the State and private enterprise. Growing institutions must not be strangled by the competition of Government institutions, but aided on a fixed principle which shall not be subject to constant oscillation.

It is not fair that the expansion of aided institutions should be cramped by a fixed grant from Provincial revenues which cannot be exceeded. If the withdrawal of Government is really desired by the authorities, elastic provision for increased demands for grants-in-aid should be made. It is not reasonable for the State to proclaim its desire to encourage private enterprise, and yet compel its Director of Public Instruction either to close his treasury against claims which have been earned or else temporarily close a Government school which has been raised with difficulty to a position of high efficiency. This, however, was the equivocal position of the Department in former years. The annual expansion of grants-in-aid must be foreseen and provided for. With such safeguards and an

emphatic reiteration of the policy of Government, the position of aided institutions will be materially improved, and the contest between the two classes of schools will only produce healthy results.

Female education.

4. We have reserved the question of female education. This is a department of public instruction in which we anticipate the best results from private enterprise. We would transfer at once such schools with their existing ways and means to any association of native gentlemen who would undertake their management. We would immediately and liberally aid every agency which was working in that field of labour, and meet the wishes of the managers as far as possible by providing Inspectresses and minimizing the demands of the Department. We have expressed the opinion that municipal and local boards would not necessarily manage girls' schools better than the State. The advantages of elementary education for boys are generally admitted, but public sentiment is not yet enlightened in the matter of female education. We therefore prefer to entrust this cause to sympathetic management, and to impose no condition on the transfer except the existence of an earnest and genuine desire to promote the extension of female education.

SECTION M.—*The general relations of Departmental Officers to Private Schools or Colleges.*

We have been favoured by the Director of Public Instruction with a complete list of the complaints which have been made in the last ten years by his own department against the managers of private schools, and also those which the latter have preferred to him. The full correspondence has been placed before us. We have also had the advantage of hearing the evidence of some of those teachers who have felt dissatisfied with the working of our system. With the information that we have thus obtained, we are enabled to express the opinion that the relations of the Bombay Department of Public Instruction with private schools and colleges have been satisfactory. The Department is chiefly brought into contact with outside institutions through its Inspectors, and in connection with this subject we quote a remark of Mr. Chatfield, the Director of Public Instruction.—"It would be strange if the permanent Inspectors and Deputies in particular were not on good terms with the managers of private schools: for our inspecting officers are always the picked men of a large department who have given proofs of energy and good sense as teachers, and it is the practice of Government to try these officers in acting appointments and not to confirm them as inspecting officers until they have shown that they have the tact, temper and sympathy which are essential for the proper performance of their duties."

Character of complaints.

The complaints made against the Department muy be summarized as belonging to one of these classes:—

i.—Complaints against the withdrawal of assistance.

ii.—Complaints of insufficient assistance.

iii.—Complaints of severity in testing results or unsympathetic inspection.

We know of no instance of any serious complaint preferred by the manager of any private school against the master of a Government school, nor with a single exception (in the case of the proprietary high school in the fort, Bombay), of any complaint made by one private school against the attitude of the Department towards a rival private school. For the absence of this last kind of complaint we can assign two causes. The first has been anticipated in the last section, where we have shown that, except in Bombay and Poona, private enterprise has hitherto played but a small part in education. There has, therefore, been little competition, and consequently less of that spirit of antagonism which even healthy rivalry is sure to produce. The second cause was the withdrawal of the large grants which used to be made for passing the matriculation and the reduction of the grant for University degrees. Several reasons induced the Department to withdraw and reduce these special grants. One reason was the fluctuation of the standard of examination from year to year; a second was the largeness of the demand which might suddenly be made on the State, and which in a time of financial pressure proved extremely inconvenient. But the third reason was not the least important. The liberality of the grant rendered the temptation of seducing a promising student from one school or college to another very strong. Cases were known of students being bribed by scholarships to enter another institution which hoped to earn the grant payable on their passing the examination. When the grants were withdrawn or reduced, this temptation was removed, and the relations between one institution and another private institution became less liable to strain or unpleasantness. We have stated that between private schools and Government schools few serious causes of contention have arisen. We have heard of mission schools complaining that their boys have been taken away by the attractions of the Government school. But it is difficult to analyse the causes which have led to the transfer of pupils, and on the whole, even these complaints have been so rare that we need not give them further attention.

No complaints of private schoolmasters regarding competition with other private schools.

The friction between the Department and private schools is therefore confined to the three complaints which we have summarized above. As regards the first, namely the withdrawal of assistance from institutions receiving aid, we have already on page 53 given a table showing the grants-in-aid given from 1871 to 1881. In

Withdrawal of grants-in-aid.

Section H we have enlarged on this subject. We have further shown that, whilst Government has never recalled its announcement of an ultimate withdrawal, and has repeated with emphasis its desire to assist all private institutions which deserved assistance, yet in practice it has assigned to the Department insufficient funds for any large extension of aid. Until 1875 a fixed allotment of Rs. 70,000 was considered sufficient to cover these elastic demands. After that year, it was imposible to confine within fixed limits the natural growth and expansion of private enterprise. Still, even then, the Director was not only enjoined, but he was compelled by the funds assigned to him to practise economy. The grants were therefore reduced, and the matriculation grant, as already stated, withdrawn. Then, too, it became necessary to enforce a disability which has received the sanction of the highest* authority.

Schools, which were making a profit for their proprietors or managers, were struck off the list, as well as those which were reported as inefficient. Under the operation of these two tests the following private anglo-vernacular schools, in addition to certain vernacular elementary schools, were struck off the list of schools entitled to a grant-in-aid :—

1.—The Poona Native Institution.
2.—Natu's School, Poona.
3.—The Prabhu Seminary, Bombay.
4.—The Chandanwadi High School, Bombay, No. I.
5.— Ditto ditto No. II.
6.—The Fort High School, Bombay.
7.—Baba Gokhale's School, Poona.
8.—Ankleshwar Anglo-Vernacular School.
9.—Parsi Seminary, Baherkot, Bombay.
10.—Narayan Amrit's School, Breach Candy, Bombay.

The schools which were kept up for a profit were refused aid by Sir A. Grant, and his practice was approved by the Supreme Government and the home authorities. Mr. Peile, however, who succeeded him, was able to find funds, and admitted private adventure schools to the benefit of the grant-in-aid code. His successor. the present Director, was compelled by the increased demands on his scanty funds to revert to the previous rule. In doing so he naturally challenged criticism and provoked complaint. His justification must be sought for in the exigencies of the financial position and the clear orders of higher authority. If his task was necessarily invidious, he performed it with fairness, and his action calls for no further apology or remark.

Insufficient assistance.

As regards the second complaint that insufficient assistance is rendered, it may be observed that the insufficiency may be due to the rules and the standard of aid provided in the code, or else to a severe and niggardly application of the rules. The latter point is reserved for inquiry hereafter. As regards the former the Department is not answerable. The responsibility for the scale of assistance rests with Government. We have dealt with the matter in its proper place, and suggested an increased scale of assistance in certain classes of schools. But here we may be allowed to express our opinion that if schools had been fairly efficient, and if they had supplemented their resources by reasonable fees, they could have earned under the rules a very substantial proportion of their expenditure.

Severity of inspection and examination.

We pass on to the third complaint, that even under the scale fixed some schools have been treated harshly. This complaint has been repeated by more than one witness, and in particular reference to low-caste or girls' schools. The complaint in the latter case is particularly directed against the native Deputy Inspectors, whose examinations have been described as severe and unsympathetic. It is natural that earnest and interested managers of low-caste and female schools whose philanthropic perseverance has overcome disheartening obstacles should be disappointed at results which shatter at a blow their cherished expectations. It is extremely probable that another Inspector or Deputy Inspector would have doubled the grant which one examiner has allotted. But variations of standard, and possibly even degrees of sympathy, are inherent in any system of

* We refer to the Secretary of State's Despatch No. 9, dated March 31st, 1868, and pages 33 and 34 of this Report.

examination and are frequently subject for remark in England. We have proposed to meet the objections of those who are interested in female education by providing an Inspectress of girls' schools and inviting female school-managers to accept the office of examiner when no Inspectress can be obtained. In this way one difficultly may be met. For the rest we see no practical remedy. We trust that one result of this Commission will be to draw closer the bonds between the Department and all other agencies which are engaged in education. If the Department in every grade recognizes, as all the higher officers at present do, that all teachers and societies engaged in the work of instruction are prosecuting a common object, friction will be removed or at least reduced to a minimum.

Departmental returns.

We may allude here to a complaint sometimes made, that the demands for information or statistics which the Department makes on private institutions are inconvenient. We have ascertained that some misconception exists on this point, and we feel that the special demands which the inquiries of our Commission have necessitated have in part enhanced this misconception. We have, however, in our report suggested that returns of daily attendance in indigenous aided schools be rendered optional, and in other directions we have made other suggestions of a similar tendency. If these proposals are adopted, we feel that no cause for reasonable complaint will be left. On the whole, all aided schools are at present left very much to themselves and the interference of the Department with them is as slight as possible. The Bombay grant-in-aid system requires the Inspector simply to look at results and to inspect the attendance-roll and the accommodation and discipline of the students. No enquiries are made as to the pay of the teachers and the amount and distribution of each item of expenditure. School-managers are also entirely free to promote or classify their pupils as they think fit, and the department examines the pupils in detail only once in every two years. We hope that aided institutions will be allowed to participate as much as possible in the advantages enjoyed by the pupils at Government schools. The absence of any scholarship-system in Bombay, which otherwise is no subject for regret, is in this respect unfortunate that the Department is not able to admit privately-trained pupils into competition with its own. But we have recommended that the certificates given to trained students or schoolmistresses should also be given to any other qualified pupils of private institutions who can pass our tests, although they have studied elsewhere. There is nothing at present to prevent competent pupils of aided schools entering the service of the Department, or presenting themselves for any special examinations, if they obtain permission to do so. That they have hitherto failed to take advantage of this opportunity may be due to their preference for service elsewhere or their inability to compete with boys trained in the more efficient Government schools. But we should be glad to see a greater competition between all classes of schools for those certificates or distinctions which the Department is able to award, and which should be awarded without any distinction to the best qualified candidates.

CHAPTER IV.

TABULAR STATEMENTS.

The contents of the tables.

The five general tables which follow have already been fully illustrated by the remarks contained in the sections of Chapter III. The first table sums up the total number of institutions of each class and the number of scholars atending them. The second table distributes schools and colleges into Government, aided and inspected institutions, and summarizes the attendance and studies of the scholars and the several races or castes to which the pupils belong. The third table gives in one view the whole of the expenditure incurred on each class of institutions. To facilitate, however, a comparison of the expenditure on collegiate, secondary and primary education, we have appended an abstract to this rather complex statement. The abstract includes expenditure on the University, the whole cost of direction, inspection, training colleges and attached technical schools, scholarships, buildings and all miscellaneous items. The cost of direction and inspection has been distributed in the following proportions:—

	Direction.	Inspection.	
		Educational Inspectors.	Deputy Inspectors and Assistants.
Colleges	1/6	...	...
Secondary schools . .	1/3	1/2	1/4
Primary do. . . .	1/3	1/2	3/4

The expenditure on training colleges has been debited wholly to primary schools, and the other items of expenditure to the several institutions for whose benefit they were incurred. The fourth and fifth tables set forth the results of University and departmental examinations, and the grants accorded by the State to the several grades of aided institutions.

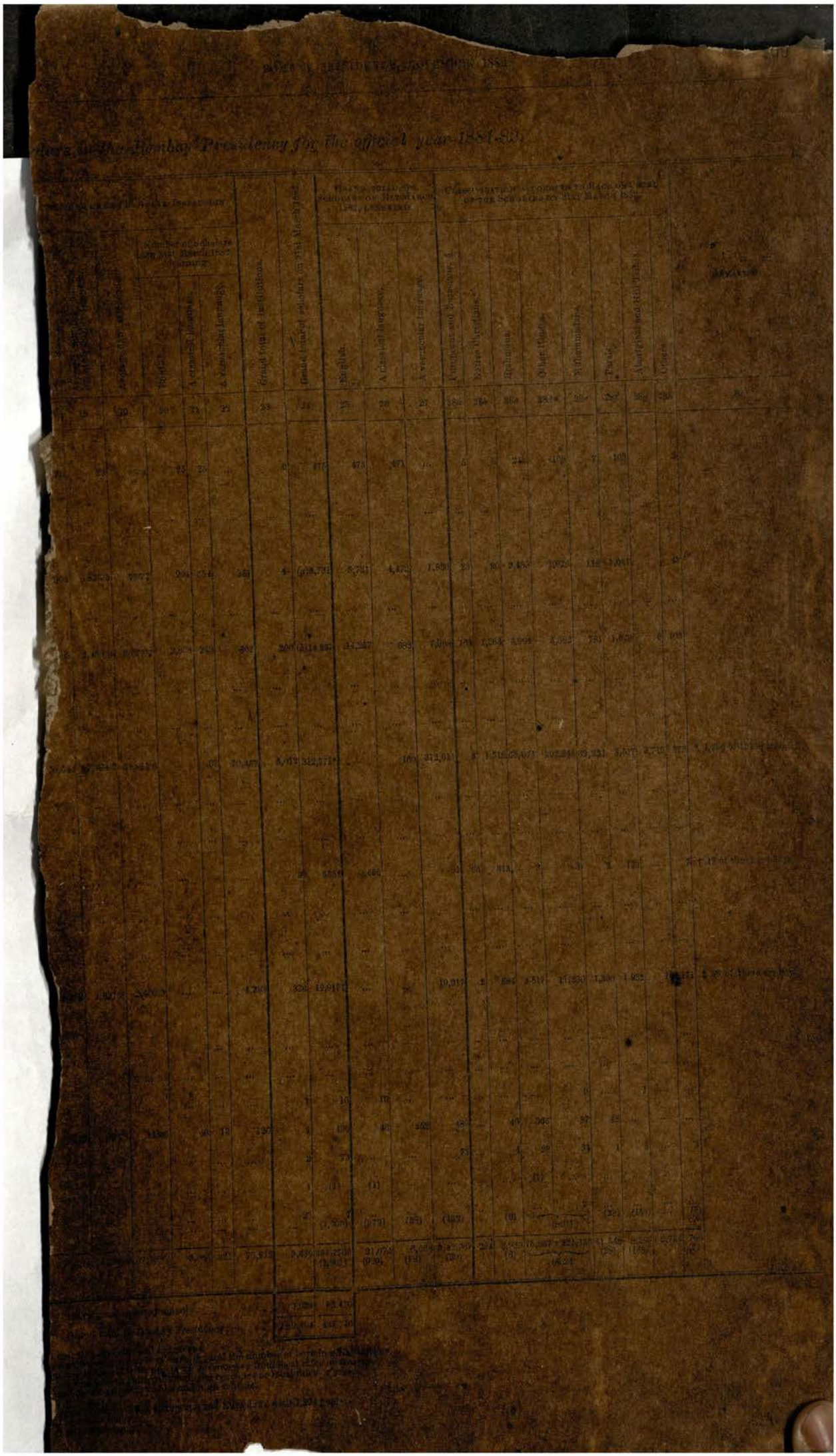
Total Area of Province in Square miles	Number of Towns and Villages	Total Population	Institutions and Scholars	Total Number of Institutions and Scholars	School Institutions for Boys and Girls											Other Institutions for Boys and Girls		Private Institutions	
					Arts Colleges	High Schools	Middle Schools	Primary Schools	Schools of Art	Medical Schools	Girls' Normal Schools	Training (for Teachers) Schools	Industrial Schools	Other Schools	Total	Number of Institutions	Number of Scholars	Number of Institutions	Number of Scholars
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10a	10b	10c	10d	10e	10f	11	12	13	14	15
British Districts 124,122	British Districts 24,598	British Districts—	Institutions — For Males	6	41	206	5,012	...	...	1	7	1	25	5,299	24 11	...		
Native States 67,224	Native States 12,959	Males . 8,500,281	Institutions — For Females	...	...	9	326	...	...	...	2	...	...	337	289	...		
191,346	37,557	Females . 7,960,387	Total	6	41	215	5,338	...	...	1	9	1	25	5,636	15 00	...		
		Total . 16,460,668*																
		Native States—																
		Males . 3,466,821																
		Females . 3,261,632																
		Total . 6,728,453†																
		Grand Total 23,189,021‡	Scholars — Males	475	5,731	14,271	303,533	...	...	10	480	(D) 5	(1,000) 7	329,510	...	...	2 15	
			Scholars — Females	...	...	538	24,155	...	...	...	73	...	...	24,766	...	...	20	
			Total	475	5,731	14,812	327,688	...	...	10	553	(D) 5	(1,000) 7	354,276	...	...	175	

* Including superintendents of Native States, etc. (see p. 23 [illegible]).
† Exclusive of the population of [illegible] Native States and Shan States in which no Educational Returns are [illegible] Burma's Sea Frontier.
‡ The number of children of [illegible] Native States and Shan States in which no Educational Returns are [illegible] Burma's Sea Frontier.
(D) Figures for [illegible] Schools are included under Middle Schools, English and Vernacular.
(1,000) [illegible] Schools are included under Primary Schools.

GENERAL TABLE No. II.—*Return of Arts Colleges, S*

Education and Training.	Government Institutions.							Aided Institutions.				
	Number of Institutions.	Number of Scholars on the rolls on 31st March 1862.	Average number on the rolls monthly during the year.	Average daily attendance.	Number of Scholars on 31st March 1862, learning			Number of Institutions.	Number of Scholars on the rolls on 31st March 1862.	Average number on the rolls monthly during the year.	Average daily attendance.	
					English.	Colloquial language.	Vernacular language.					
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Arts Colleges.												
English	3	311	291	256	311	311	...	2	130	142	127	14
Vernacular	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Schools for General Education.												
High Schools { English	19	3,601	3,212·08	2,852·89	3,601	3,158	1,092	14	1,228	1,116·4	820·34	3,128
High Schools { Vernacular	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Middle Schools { English	128	7,569	6,875·5	6,253·04	7,569	189	4,350	39	3,780	3,635·47	2,668·3	3,128
Middle Schools { Vernacular	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Ordinary Schools { English	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Ordinary Schools { Vernacular	3,600	232,363	220,815·9	164,168·3	...	...	232,363	146	9,564	9,170·71	7,736·9	
Total Public Schools { High Schools { English	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
High Schools { Vernacular	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Middle Schools { English	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3	573	761	445	253
Middle Schools { Vernacular	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Ordinary Schools { English	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Ordinary Schools { Vernacular	751	11,296	10,514·9	6371·9	...	...	11,296	59	1,358	4,120·51	1,900·03	
Schools of Special or Technical Training attached for purposes similar to General Schools, viz.—												
Law Schools	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Medical Schools	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Engineering Schools	1	10	(7)	6·9	10	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Training Schools for Masters	4	340	332·8	307·9	...	289	303	...	...	...	...	
Training Schools for Mistresses	2	73	65·9	58·	...	...	73	...	...	...	...	
Industrial Schools	1	(1)	(59)	(54)	(1)	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Other Schools	26	(1,500)	(904·1)	(739·9)	(979)	(38)	(123)	...	...	...	...	
Total of Public Colleges & Schools	3,571	258,500 (1,501)	243,582·08 (966·1)	179,666·23 (739)	11,481 (680)	3,581 (58)	250,777 (130)	251	18,802	19,974·21	13,844·7	

1.—The Arts Colleges (General Department)
II.—Schools for General Education.
III.—Schools of Special or Technical Training.
2.—The number of Pupils in Normal Schools is included in that of Pupils in Public Schools.



GENERAL TABLE No. III.—*Return of Expenditure on Edu*

Object of Expenditure.	Government Institutions.									Aided Institutions.							
	Provincial Revenues.	Local Rates or Cesses.	Municipal Grants.	Fees.	Subscriptions.	Endowments.	Other Sources.*	Total.	Provincial Revenues.	Local Rates or Cesses.	Municipal Grants.	Fees.	Subscriptions.	Endowments.	Other Sources.*	Total.
1	2a	2b	2c	2d	2e	2f	2g	3	3a	3b	3c	3d	3e	3f	3g	4
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Arts Colleges.																
University Education { English	35,467	...	3,000	27,468	...	24,238	853	1,38,026	5,100	...	...	8,878	500	1,000	2,500	17,978
University Education { Oriental	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Schools for General Education.																
High Schools { English	58,503	...	7,469	84,390	2,828	5,817	83	1,59,090	17,889	...	...	13,324	1,815	2,000	1,000	36,028
High Schools { Vernacular	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Middle Schools { English	18,414	611	26,785	63,354	949	1,189	...	1,71,296	25,794	...	...	28,428	6,570	3,13	1,000	64,912
Middle Schools { Vernacular	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Primary Schools { English	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Primary Schools { Vernacular	2,37,397	6,35,458	8,257	144,048	4,26	112	2,179	9,62,190	9,296	5,529	100	5,500	6,280	6,670	...	33,375
Special or Technical Schools { High Schools { English	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Special or Technical Schools { High Schools { Vernacular	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Special or Technical Schools { Middle Schools { English	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5,174	...	...	6,903	1,783	...	...	13,860
Special or Technical Schools { Middle Schools { Vernacular	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Special or Technical Schools { Primary Schools { English	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Special or Technical Schools { Primary Schools { Vernacular	18,027	12,199	1,155	918	...	...	...	63,449	29,484	229	30	1,127	11,307	9,178	4,093	55,448
Normal or Training Schools for Teachers (not subordinate to Department of Public Instruction).	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Law Schools.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Schools of Art	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Medical Schools	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Engineering Schools	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Agricultural Schools	1,522	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,522	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Training Schools for Teachers	34,918	19,791	...	7	...	...	...	54,716	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Training Schools for Mistresses	15,238	3,754	800	...	...	800	...	19,492	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Reformatory Schools	...	300	...	...	...	...	...	300	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Other Schools	9,733	...	2,320	1,273	11	...	865	13,802	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Scholarships	27,400	...	...	...	...	...	...	27,400	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Buildings	38,953	...	...	...	...	...	...	38,953	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Furniture	1,27,013	1,801	...	2,869	...	...	...	1,31,683	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Boarding { College	11,744	...	...	...	...	1,292	800	13,836	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Boarding { School	5,820	6,437	...	...	...	1,194	...	14,451	...	...	...	307	...	...	...	307
Contingencies	57,821	2,15,773	...	...	...	6,348	...	1,04,942	18,587	...	...	...	...	...	...	18,587
Miscellaneous	9,000	24,150	...	800	...	1,200	800	35,950	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Total	8,44,210	7,00,744	49,786	4,56,125	8,177	44,390	4,780	21,08,412	1,11,405	5,758	130	65,467	28,255	22,061	8,593	2,41,669

1. Fees collected in Government Institutions are credited to Provincial Revenues.

...ucts in the Bombay Presidency for the official year 1881-82.

Institutions			Total Expenditure				Percentage on Total Expenditure of the year	Average Annual Cost of Educating each Pupil in													
								Government Institutions					Aided Institutions				Unaided Institutions			
Schools	Colleges	Total	Provincial Revenues	Local Funds, Municipal Fees, Contributions, Subscriptions, &c.	Fees, Subscriptions, &c., contributed by Non-official Officers	Gross Total		Total Cost	Cost to Provincial Revenues	Cost to Local Funds and Municipalities	Cost to Multipurpose	Total Cost	Cost to Provincial Revenues	Cost to Local Funds and Municipalities	Cost to Miscellaneous	Total Cost	Cost to Miscellaneous				
2	3	4	52	53	54	55	0	74	75	76	77	80	81	82	83	84	85				
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.

ABSTRACT OF GENERAL TABLE III.—*Showing the Total Expenditure of every kind on Primary, Secondary and Collegiate Institutions, together with Expenditure on the University, and on miscellaneous objects.*

OBJECT OF EXPENDITURE.			AMOUNT.
			Rs.
(a). University			36,987
(b). Arts Colleges		Government	1,61,690
		Aided	38,578
		Unaided	.....
		Native States	7,296
		TOTAL	2,07,564
(c). High Schools for Boys		Government	2,67,051
		Aided	63,151
		Unaided	8,600
		Native States	61,854
		TOTAL	4,00,956
(d). Middle Schools for	Boys / Girls	Government	1,76,955
		Aided	1,23,375
		Unaided	7,012
		Native States	52,130
		TOTAL	8,59,772
(e). Primary Schools for	Boys / Girls	Government	13,85,164
		Aided	90,178
		Unaided	8,958
		Native States	4,53,800
		TOTAL	19,38,000
(f). Miscellaneous Expenditure *			[illegible]
		GRAND TOTAL	[illegible]

* Miscellaneous includes towards [illegible] and other [illegible] charges not debitable to any of the preceding heads.
* The total expenditure on education amounted to [illegible]

TABLE IV.—*Return showing the results of prescribed Examinations in the Board of Revenue during the official year 1881-82.*

No. of the Division	No. of Candidates examined				Number of Examinations.					Number Passed.					Classification of Passed Candidates.				Number of Marks obtained by the Successful Candidates.			
	Of Natives of India.	Of Non-Natives.	Of Statutory Natives.	Total.	Government Institutions.	Aided Institutions.	Other Institutions.	Private Students.	Total.	Government Institutions.	Aided Institutions.	Other Institutions.	Private Students.	Total.	Natives of India.	Non-Natives.	Statutory Natives.	Total.	Highest number obtained.	Lowest number obtained.	Average obtained by all the Candidates.	Average obtained by the Successful Candidates.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23

GENERAL TABLE V.—*Return showing the number of Aided Schools attended by Natives of India on the 31st March 1871, 1876 and 1882, and the amounts of the grants earned during the years 1870-71, 1875-76, and 1881-82.*

Orders of Expenditure.		Number of Schools.			Amount of Grant earned.		
		1871.	1876.	1882.	1871.	1876.	
					Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A.
Art Colleges	English	...	...	...	...	...	
	Oriental	...	...	...	...	...	
General Education.							
Secondary and Primary Schools	English — For Boys	7	23	11	9,652 0 0	20,706 0 0	13,715 0 0
	English — For Girls	...	2	2	...	1,434 0 0	828 0 0
	Vernacular — For Boys	4	151	106	1,801 0 0	6,329 0 0	7,582 0 0
	Vernacular — For Girls	12	12	23	2,503 0 0	2,329 0 0	4,094 0 0
Special Schools attached as Departments to General Schools.							
Schools of Art		...	...	...	...	...	
Medical Schools		...	...	...	...	...	
Engineering Schools		...	...	...	...	...	
Training Schools for Masters		...	...	...	...	...	
Ditto for Mistresses		...	...	...	...	...	
Industrial Schools		...	...	...	...	...	
Other Schools		...	...	...	...	...	
Building Grants		...	...	...	...	...	1,082 0 0
	TOTAL	23	188	142	13,956 0 0	30,798 0 0	27,641 0 0
Art Colleges	English	2	2	2	600 0 0	2,250 0 0	6,057 0 0
	Oriental	...	...	...	...	...	
General Education.							
Secondary and Primary Schools	English — For Boys	24	35	33	17,079 0 0	34,376 0 0	24,168 0 0
	English — For Girls	4	5	7	1,317 0 0	4,022 0 0	13,185 0 0
	Vernacular — For Boys	17	43	40	938 0 0	2,635 0 0	3,001 0 0
	Vernacular — For Girls	4	16	27	348 0 0	928 0 0	2,960 0 0
Special Schools attached as Departments to General Schools.							
Schools of Art		...	...	...	...	...	
Medical Schools		...	...	...	...	...	
Engineering Schools		...	...	...	...	...	
Training Schools for Masters		...	...	...	...	...	
Ditto for Mistresses		...	...	...	...	...	
Industrial Schools		...	...	...	...	...	
Other Schools		...	...	...	...	...	
Building grants		1	...	...	61,836 0 0	...	3,822 0 0
	TOTAL	52	201	150	81,280 0 0	74,230 0 0	81,875 0 0
	GRAND TOTAL	652	651	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

CHAPTER V.

GENERAL SUMMARY.

After the tables which have just been given, it is unnecessary to recapitulate facts which will strike the eye at a glance. The male population of the 191,346 square miles with which our report deals is 11,960,602, and the male population of school-going age is estimated at 1,794,090, for whom there were on March 31st last 9,321 schools of all kinds,* which were attended by 410,980 male scholars, or nearly 23 per cent. of the male population of a fit age to attend school.

These numbers are inclusive of the Native State schools, as well as of the indigenous and private schools of all grades, which received no assistance from the State. In the British districts of the Bombay Presidency (including Aden), with an area of 124,122 square miles and a male population of school-going age amounting to 1,275,042, there were 7,217 schools and colleges of all grades, which were attended by 318,314 scholars. There was therefore in the Presidency proper one school for every 17·19 square miles, and 25 per cent. of the boys, who should be at school, were under instruction. The distribution of these institutions including those for girls was as follows:

		Number of Scholars.
63	Colleges (including Madrasas and Pathashalas)	1,090
68	High schools (including attached technical schools and classes)	7,188
177	Middle schools	12,562
7,153	Primary schools (including indigenous schools)	318,961
7	Training Colleges	479
7,468		340,490

At the beginning of the year 1855-56 the Department of Public Instruction administered 255 schools and colleges, which were attended by 21,860 scholars, and which were maintained at a cost to the State of Rs. 2,50,000 per annum. At the end of 1881-82 with an increased expenditure to the State of rather more than 6½ lakhs, or 271 per cent., the number of schools and colleges within the departmental system of instruction had risen to 4,263—an increase of 1,571 per cent., while the number of scholars had increased to 276,740, or 1165 per cent.

Encouraging as these statistics are, it is still more satisfactory to note that the progress of education since the last census has far outstripped the advance of population. Nor is there any sign that a limit to further improvement has been reached. The cry from every province of the Presidency is for more schools, and an almost indefinite extension of primary education resolves itself into a mere question of funds. The experience of the past decade has shown that in primary cess-schools the attendance could be increased by 93 per cent. at an increase of only 18 per cent. in the expenditure. The policy of the Department has been to concentrate its main efforts on the foundations of a national scheme of instruction without neglecting the superstructure. Thus, nearly 67 per cent.† of a total expenditure of 29 lakhs is devoted to primary education, and the system is worked with such economy that the total cost of a boy's education is only Rs. 4 5-10 per annum in a cess-school, where he is instructed by a competent and generally a trained master, supplied with all necessary apparatus and good school-accommodation, annually examined, and able to study up to the sixth standard without the expense of leaving his own village. In higher education the policy has been to secure the greatest efficiency in the fewest possible institutions. There are only six arts colleges in the Presidency, two of which have been recently founded, and at present every district is not yet provided with its own high school. But the general efficiency of these two classes of institutions may be tested by the fact that since the year 1870 the total number of students who have passed the examination for the degree of bachelor of arts in the Bombay University is 312 or 39·22 per cent. of the total number

* Omitting of course all schools and colleges excluded from the scope of this report.

† Omitting expenditure on the University and miscellaneous items unconnected with the system of instruction. Including this extraneous expenditure the percentage is 35·05.

examined; while the number of pupils in the Government high schools, who have passed the matriculation examination during the same period, is 1,697, or 40 per cent. of the number of candidates sent up from these schools. In the examinations held last year in the lower forms of the Government high schools 87 per cent. of the students in average attendance and 44 per cent. of those actually examined succeeded in passing in all heads of the standards under which they were presented.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

Before summarizing our recommendations we think it advisable to state clearly the broad principles, by which, in our opinion, the State must be guided in its administration of a national scheme of public instruction. When the Government first entered on its task, there existed in India certain indigenous institutions both of a high and of a low order. Speaking generally, education, whether high or low, was the monopoly of certain castes or classes. Higher education was either religious or secular, and in either case its object was special or technical. The priesthood were educated in subjects which were of little practical use to society generally, but were specially adapted to the requirements of the various religious orders. No candidate for the priesthood sought education in any matter, which would enlarge his mind or take him beyond the traditional curriculum required for his religious trade. Higher secular education was the monopoly of the Amil class in Sind, and the Bráhman caste in Mahárashtra. Its object was to fit the scholar for the public service, and no time was wasted on the acquisition of knowledge which seemed superfluous. In lower education, the object sought for was even more narrowly practical and technical. The commercial or industrial castes had each their own way of doing business, and the minds of their children were from the earliest age forced into the groove, in which the trade of the grown-up man would move. The memory was loaded, whilst the mind was neglected. Education, or rather instruction (for in such instruction there was little to draw out the talents of the rising generation) was therefore narrow and illiberal. It was also as circumscribed in the extent as in the course of study. The exclusive right of the Bráhman caste to higher education was a tradition sanctioned by religion and enforced by public opinion. In the lower grades of society also the peasantry would have considered it derogatory to their position to send their children to school. Free sons of the soil, they left the indigenous schools to the tradesman, whose life was passed in the shop or behind the counter. The essential notion of education was a practical instruction in such special subjects as would engage in after-life the attention of the school-boy, whose career was already irrevocably mapped out for him by caste, when he was born into the world. The influx of European civilization and thought necessarily worked a revolution in the object and therefore the system of education. It was considered to be the duty of the State not merely to diffuse education and break down the monopoly, but also to elevate its tone. It was possible to effect this without making instruction too ambitious or unpractical. But the extension was necessarily a work of time, and even now, in one province of Bombay, society demands a further expansion of the primary course, whilst another division is hardly raised to its level. The policy of elevating the tone of education was not confined to one class of school. A whole system of education requires a superstructure as well as a foundation, and the natural growth of man involves gradations of instruction and mental progress which create a necessity for lower, middle, and higher schools. From the first the Department of Instruction in Bombay aimed not merely at making each class of institution as complete and efficient in itself as possible, but also at co-ordering the whole scheme of education. The policy of Government, therefore, as far as we have traced it, was to extend and elevate the tone of instruction, and organize a complete scheme of education from the foundation of elementary schools to the pedestal of the University. The definition of a policy was, however, only one step in its successful development. Steady perseverance and gradual improvement, without perpetual oscillations, were equally essential. Owing to the absence of these conditions many excellent schemes have been wrecked. A whole generation must pass away before a fresh spirit can be infused into Asiatic society, and the more liberal principles

Educational policy.

applied by the force of State-control to education, can be assimilated by all classes of the community. If the State is to withdraw from education it must withdraw from something better and higher than the narrow system which it found. It cannot, however, withdraw till its task is done. Its task is to raise indigenous institutions to its own level, and finally retire in favour of local bodies who will not relapse into the condition of indifferent and selfish monopolies which the State has endeavoured to reform and supersede.

Co-operation of the people.

In Bombay this policy has been recognized and the methods adopted have already been described. The general diffusion of education and the elevation of its tone would have been an impracticable task without the active co-operation of the people. The co-operation desired was twofold—co-operation in filling the schools, and also in managing them. The influence of Government was first directed to inviting voluntary contributions, and finally securing their permanency by legislation. The rural cess for education was first voluntarily collected and then imposed by statute. Its effect was to associate the great mass of the people who are engaged in agriculture with the primary cess-schools. Once the peasantry found themselves contributing to the maintenance of schools, they recognized that education was not merely their privilege but their right. The old monopoly was swept away by the silent force of circumstances. We have shown that more than 54 per cent. of the attendance in cess-schools is now supplied from the ranks of the agricultural cess-payers. But this was not sufficient. Representatives of the people in local areas were invited to take part in the management of their own cess-schools. This policy has been so successful that Government are now in a position to withdraw from primary education to a large extent in favour of these local and quasi-public bodies. But the time has not yet arrived when the future development of education can be jeopardized by a complete withdrawal. The State must continue to guide the progress of education, without however weakening the power and independence of the local boards. Only when society has become not merely advanced but even progressive, and when higher education has more completely filtered downwards, can the Government separate itself entirely from the direct maintenance of schools and colleges.

Such being in our opinion the policy of the State, we should view with the greatest regret any abandonment of the cess-school system in favour of indigenous institutions. These latter institutions are still essentially backward and illiberal.

Indigenous schools.

Rural society has outgrown the narrow and cramped education which the indigenous school master can afford. The present prime-minister of Baroda, Khán Bahádur Kázi Shahábudin, has stated in his evidence that rural society in Gujarath, the most practical and enterprising community in the Presidency, demands an extension of the primary school course beyond even the VIth Standard. The statistics of education in Gujarath confirm his opinion. In this division the attendance in cess-schools has doubled itself since 1874, and the higher classes of the primary schools have obtained an exceptional popularity. Mr. Giles, the Educational Inspector, estimates that, if he had funds to open schools, he could add 60,000 to the school attendance in a few months. We have therefore proposed that the Government of India should recognize its obligation to make special provision for primary education, and, if extra funds are thus provided, we would increase the number of cess-schools. At the same time we would not neglect the indigenous schools. It is our object not to lower the cess-school to the level of the indigenous school, but to raise the latter to the level of the former. The immense popularity of the cess-schools proves that the task is practicable. The State can be liberal without relaxing its broad principles of toleration, equality, and the necessity for improved teachers and methods of instruction. We entirely deprecate the system of petty doles frittered away on indigenous schools without proper inspection *in situ*, without improving the masters or the standards, and without regular and thorough examination. Still more should we deprecate any retirement from the cess-schools. Such an act would be unjust to the cess-payer, and involve a departure from the policy of the last quarter of a century, just when that policy is bearing fruit. There is abundant room in the vast field of ignorance for the operations of every possible agency, and indigenous schools will always fulfil a useful though humble function in filling up voids where there are no cess-schools.

and in preparing infants for entering those schools where they are established. The views expressed by the Secretary of State in 1859, that the means of elementary education should be provided mainly by the Government, still hold good. But under influence of education society has made such rapid advances since 1859, that we are enabled to transfer the management of primary education from Government to local boards. Whilst therefore we advocate the retention and increase of cess-schools as the main agency for diffusing instruction amongst the masses, we hope that municipal and local boards will undertake their management, at first subject to the general control of the State, and ultimately on their own responsibility.

Urban and rural boards, and legislation.

In order to strengthen the position and define the responsibilities of local boards, we have advocated the complete separation of the ways and means of urban primary education from those of rural primary education. The municipal committees will be charged with the administration of the former, and the local funds committees with that of the latter. The present condition of affairs may in our opinion be characterized as an act of injustice to cess-payers, involving not merely robbery to the village-fund, but demoralizing the public sentiment. The towns are rich and must provide funds for the education of the urban community. Not only must the cess-income be fairly divided, but the assignment of provincial or imperial funds to primary education must be regulated with proper regard to an equal distribution of the grant-in-aid proportioned to local resources. Legislation must secure to each fund its proper assignment. We have shown that the great success of the Bombay system has been due to the Local Fund Act, which placed primary education above the caprices or accidents of finance, and those oscillations of policy which frequent changes in administrative *personnel* involve. Had other provinces of India been placed in the position in which Bombay has stood for the last 15 years with a large fund for primary education, which could not be diverted for higher education, which the people not only contributed but managed for themselves, we have no doubt that their local boards, like those in Bombay, would have discarded the indigenous schools with their narrow curriculum taught by untrained masters, and adopted the system of cess-schools, which have raised primary education in Bombay to its present height. Legislation has given Bombay its strength, and the time has now come when further advantage may be expected from fresh legislation. Municipal boards of education will now be divided from local fund boards, and the former should be empowered to raise a town-cess similar to the rural-cess. The board should also, in our opinion, be entrusted with the control not merely of the town and village cess-schools, but with the whole area of primary education. This would enable them to increase their own schools or develop the indigenous schools at their pleasure. The powers and rights of these boards should be defined and also their responsibilities and liabilities. Private enterprise should be secured in its rights, and the administration of the system of grants-in-aid by results transferred to the boards. Our reasons for advocating this course have been given, and need not be repeated here. We believe that the extension of the boards' powers would not merely educate the boards in toleration and administrative capacity, but prevent the recurrence of the anomalies in expenditure of funds which at present exist, besides preventing collisions between self-governing bodies and the central government.

Higher education.

In higher education we have advocated the retention of high schools and colleges under the control of Government. But these institutions need not be increased without extreme caution. Private enterprise should be liberally fostered, and the scholars of aided institutions should participate in all the prizes and rewards, which the State can give. Whilst no State-school or college should be starved into inefficiency or surrendered to probable decay, the improvement of private institutions should be the first care of the State-department. The bonds between aided and Government institutions should be drawn as close as possible, and the managers of the former should be invited to consider more largely than at present not merely regulations which specially affect them, such as the grant-in-aid rules, but also matters of general interest to all educational institutions, such as changes in curriculum or systems of inspection and examination.

Female education.

In the matter of female education we propose that reliance upon private enterprise should not merely be confined to middle or higher education, but extend even to primary schools. Government must continue to pioneer this cause in districts where there is no private enterprise to take up the work. But in the large cities and some of the more advanced districts it should proclaim its anxiety to transfer its schools to any local bodies to whose sympathetic management it can trust. Under such management the religious difficulty will solve itself, and moral instruction can be given in the form which each community may consider best adapted for the education of the mothers of the next generation. We consider that, for the present, the development of female education requires wise passivity rather than wise action. We must watch the natural development of public sentiment in a matter which is not only a question of education but of social reform, and further it chiefly by liberal assistance. All conditions adverse to the growth of private enterprise must be removed, and for the increase of girls' schools managed by the parents themselves we must trust to the forces of social progress and a proper appreciation of the rights of the weaker sex.

Additional funds.

The development however of private enterprise in the wide field of education requires a steady and consistent policy. Aided effort must not be suddenly crushed by the withdrawal of aid, and the frustration of legitimate expectations of payment for results. This department of extension appears to us to have exceptional claims on the Imperial exchequer. The rights of private enterprise should in our opinion be further secured by statute against fluctuations of policy or various interpretations of discretion. We think that a revised code of the conditions of grants-in-aid and payments by results should be drawn up for each province, and that any assistance earned under that code should be given as a matter of legal right, and not as an act of grace. In this as in all other respects we consider that the difference of advancement and social conditions in each province or Presidency must be recognized. Each Presidency would require a different set of rules and scale of rewards considered with special reference not merely to the condition of education but the state of society. The cost of education, like the cost of other labour, varies immensely between Bengal and Bombay. The standard of comfort here requires more than in Bengal, and the cost or wages of labour are consequently much higher. The general principle is however the same, and if that were prescribed in a general education code for all India, each local government might be entrusted, subject to the sanction of the Government of India, with the preparation of detail rules. But when once the principle is affirmed, a progressive increase of expenditure must be anticipated, and therefore provided for in the Imperial budget. Private enterprise will year by year fill a larger space, and the Government of India must be prepared with an elastic provision of funds. Care also must be taken that private enterprise does not capriciously select a narrow area to the exclusion of whole districts and provinces. There must be a limit imposed on the assignment made for towns, which will secure a tolerably fair apportionment between urban and rural areas.

Whilst considering the subject of legislation, we may add that the principle of not interfering too much with local development and local control is, in our opinion, one of extreme importance. We should especially regret the formation of a central department of education, or the appointment of a Director General of Instruction for all India. We believe that the time has come for giving the precision and protection of law to the rights and liabilities both of local bodies charged with education, and of private enterprise; but within the limits assigned by law the development of education should be free, and intimately connected with local administration. We can conceive nothing more disastrous to the future of education in India than centralization, or any tendency to bridge over social chasms between the various provinces of India by an attempt to contract and stereotype the educational system of each province by uniform rules. The social, economic, and even to some extent the religious conditions of each Presidency differ so widely, that the education of the rising generation must be left to follow the natural course of events. We may merely mention, as an illustration of this truth, that the definition of primary education in Bombay differs from its definition in other parts of the empire: and whilst in the reports

of one local administration the complaint is often repeated that anything but a technical education "unsettles the mind of the people," in Bombay no similar complaint is ever heard, and in one division at least there is a demand for extending the present course of elementary instruction.

Examination of witnesses.

In conclusion we may offer a few remarks on the evidence given by the 38 witnesses whose evidence has been laid before the Commission. The public examination of witnesses was held at three separate centres, Poona in the Deccan, the city of Bombay, and Ahmedabad in Gujaráth. In selecting witnesses we endeavoured to represent all classes of the community, and especially to invite the evidence of gentlemen who entertained objections to the present system of instruction. Fourteen witnesses represented the cause of private enterprise engaged in the work of education; and amongst them the cause of missionary enterprise was ably represented by Mr. Hume of the American Mission, who is labouring in Ahmednagar, Mr. Beatty of the Irish Presbyterian Mission of Ahmedabad, Mr. Ziegler of the Basel Mission at Dhárwár and Mr. Shirt of the Church Missionary Society, who is engaged at Hyderabad in Sind. The Bombay Missionary Societies were represented by Mr. Squires of the Church Missionary Society, Mr. Mackichan of the Free Church of Scotland, the Roman Catholic Bishop of Bombay and Professor Rive of St. Xavier's College. Some of the most successful managers of Hindu and Párși private schools were also examined. The Department of Public Instruction supplied 14 witnesses who were engaged in Gujaráth, the Deccan, and the Southern Maráttha Country, as Inspectors, Professors, or Schoolmasters. Ten witnesses who are unconnected with the department, of whom three were Europeans, gave independent testimony on the various questions which the Commission has to consider. The cause of female education was advocated by two Hindu, one Párși, and two English ladies engaged in the work. Altogether 15 European, 14 Hindu, five Párși and four Muhammadan witnesses were examined. Several important witnesses volunteered to give evidence on technical and industrial education, but as this subject was specially placed beyond the scope of our enquiries, we were unable to admit their evidence. We would venture to express our regret at this exclusion of so important a question from our investigation, and we would still trust that the subject will come under the consideration of the Commission in dealing with the task before them. Besides examining witnesses, we received numerous memorials, and several statements of extreme value. The statement furnished by Mr. Justice West, who is Vice-Chancellor of the University of Bombay, reached us too late for consideration in this report, but it will be printed immediately, and we beg to invite the special attention of the Commission to it.

H. P. JACOB,
W. LEE-WARNER,
K. T. TELANG,
Members of the Bombay Provincial Committee.

BOMBAY,
4th November 1882.

APPENDIX A.

SCHOOLS ESTABLISHED IN WESTERN INDIA BY THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.

The educational system and institutions of the Roman Catholic Church in the Bombay Presidency from the time of the early Portuguese (16th century) to the second half of the present century.

I.—General Outline.

1. The work of education in the Portuguese dominions of India was chiefly entrusted to the Catholic missionaries of the various religious orders that were engaged in the evangelisation of this country. It was arranged and carried out on a systematical plan adapted to the peculiar wants and circumstances of the various classes of people for whom it was intended.

2. The centre of it was Goa with its numerous monasteries and colleges, which provided not only the teachers but also books and funds through the Portuguese Government and the private charity of both European and Native benefactors.

3. From the very beginning the work was almost simultaneously carried out in all its branches from the lowest to the highest, so that towards the end of the 16th century we see it fully developed in the following institutions:—

The 16th and 17th centuries.

(*a.*) Nearly every church and missionary station had its elementary school; many had also a Latin course of various classes. These schools represent what we may call.—'*The parochial Portuguese and Latin schools.*'

(*b.*) Much like these parochial schools were the *orphanages* for native children, in which, besides rudimentary instruction, industrial and agricultural work was also provided for the pupils.

(*c.*) The higher education in the classical studies and sciences flourished chiefly under the direction of the Jesuits *in the colleges* which were so largely endowed and provided with all necessaries that they could do their work gratis, and make the best choice of their students according to talent and behaviour.

(*d.*) The education of the candidates for the priesthood was carried on in the *seminaries* which were attached to the principal monasteries of the various religious orders for the purpose of forming a native clergy and a supply for their own respective congregations. The curriculum embraced a full course of philosophy and theology under the direction of eminent professors appointed for this purpose. It lasted generally for three or four years after a student had passed successfully his classical studies and spent some years as an assistant teacher in the parochial schools. Scope and opportunity of more extensive studies, especially for the study of the vernacular languages, the literature and history of the country, was afforded to the more talented and deserving students, many of whom found their employment in the higher offices of Government or the church, whilst others were admitted as members of the religious orders and engaged by them in the administration of parishes and other missionary work.

4. With the decline of the Portuguese power in India, the invasions of the Maráthás, and the increasing scarcity of Catholic missionaries, especially after the suppression of the Jesuits in the year 1759, all the institutions for higher education fell into ruins, and the native clergy was unable to restore them or to raise new ones. The same lot befell also the orphanages. The parochial elementary schools alone survived, as most of the churches to which they belonged were spared by the Maráthás, and aided by private donations continued under the care of the native clergy and the Catholic missionaries, whilst a few new ones were established and endowed by different Portuguese families of Bombay, which continue to the present day. An attempt was, however, made towards the end of the last century, in about 1790, by an influential Portuguese gentleman, Sir Miguel DeLima, to erect a new Catholic college in Bombay. He collected a large sum of money and spent 45,000 scudi for the building of the college, the management of which he entrusted to the native clergy of the Archbishop of Goa. It collapsed however, after one year's existence and was never opened again. The education of the clergy was not given up, and candidates for the priesthood repaired either to the old famous college and seminary of Rachol in the Goa territority, which the Portuguese Government after the expulsion of the Jesuits, who had conducted it for nearly 200 years, had supplied with teachers and professors from the native clergy, or they resorted to the seminary which the Carmelite missionaries had opened in Surat.

The 18th century.

5. Thus at the beginning of the present century and for the first half of it we find in the Bombay Presidency no other Catholic schools but those attached to the various parishes, in which the elements, catechism, Portuguese and Latin, were taught on a more or less advanced scale according to the circumstances of the churches and the pupils. For English instruction the Catholic youth had to repair to the educational institutions of the Protestant missions in Bombay and to the schools of Government, until with the new arrival of the Jesuits in Bombay in the latter half of this century fresh Catholic schools and colleges were opened under the protection and with the support of the British Government.

The first half of the 19th century.

II.—LIST OF THE VARIOUS EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS REFERRED TO IN THE PRECEDING SECTION.

(a).—Parochial schools for catechism, rudimentary instruction in Portuguese and Latin.

1. In the course of the 16th century the Franciscan missionaries opened 14 schools of this description on the Island of Sálsette near Bombay. There was one attached to their Church of N. S. de Esperança in Bombay, built in 1596; another at the Church of N. S. Gloria in Mázagon; a third at the Church of Máhim, besides many others in Chaul and Bassein.

2. The Jesuits opened at the same time similar schools at Bándra and at six other villages in Sálsette.

3. Those parochial schools appeared so important in the eyes of the Catholic Church, that Pope Clement IX, in a Brief, dated 22nd July 1678, and in another of July 19th, 1679, imposed the strict injunction on all Catholic missionaries who were acting in India as parish priests to have such schools and to teach in them. His words are these:—"Ut vero fides adhuc in iis regionibus pubescens literarum alimento coalescat, parochis et maxime pagorum et villarum injungitur, ut eos vel per se vel per capellanos naturales, si tales ipsi non sunt, ultra fidei Christianae rudimenta grammatices etiam institutionem ceterasque artes liberales, quatenus potest, edoceant."*

(b).—Orphanages.

1. A special Government provision † was made for the education of native orphans and a Government official appointed who was called 'Pater Christianorum,' a clergyman of high reputation and zeal who had to bring them together and accommodate them in the various institutions raised for the purpose.

2. The first large establishment of this kind was erected in 1526 in the Island of Sálsette near Bombay by the Franciscan Father Antonio de Porto ‡ on the hill in which the famous caves of Mandapeshwar are found, called by the Portuguese *Montpezier*. So liberally was this orphanage supported by order of King John III. that 100 destitute native children could be maintained and educated in religious and other subjects. This orphanage after a glorious existence of more than 200 years fell to ruins after the occupation of Sálsette by the Maráthás in the last century; its church and ruined walls can be seen still from the train as it passes the station of Bháyandar on the B. B. & C. I. Line. Father Antonio founded also orphanages for 40 native boys, one on the Island of *Agassaim* to the north of Bassein, which later on was burnt down by the kings of Gujarath; another he founded in 1532 on the *Island of Uran* (Karanja) in the harbour of Bombay, destroyed by the Maráthás in 1729.§

Montpezier on the Island of Sálsette.

Orphanage on the Island of Agassaim.

Orphanage on the Island of Uran.

3. Besides many small establishments for the education of native orphans which the Jesuits has founded in Bassein and Chaul, there was a very large orphanage founded in 1556 near Thána, in a Christian village called *Sanctissima Trinidade* situated in the valley which now contains the Vehar Lake. In this orphanage 150 boys were maintained. An agricultural and industrial school was attached to it.‖

Orphanage near Thána.

(c).—Colleges and Seminaries.

1. The principal colleges for higher classical studies in this country were those of the Jesuits at Bassein, Thána and Chaul.

Colleges.

Regarding the first the Historian of the Society of Jesus says: "Collegium Bazainum ad instituendos indigenas a rege Lusitaniae erectum erat ac sociis oblatum assentiente Xaverio et antistite Goano, anno 1548."¶ It was indeed a royal institution with such abundance in everything that education was given gratis to more than 300 students. The whole curriculum of classical studies was taught there, and in the seminary attached to this college lectures in philosophy and theology were delivered to such as prepared for the priesthood. It flourished for nearly 200 years till the City of Bassein fell into the hands of the Maráthás.

Bassein College.

The college at Thána was opened some years later than that at Bassein, and the college at Chaul in 1616. Both shared the same lot as the college at Bassein.

* Bullarium Pontif. S. C. de propag. fide. Tom. I. p. 184.

† 'Exstat in India votus lex Joannis III. Lusitaniae regis ut ethnicorum liberi, si parentibus orbati fuerint adhuc impuberes, educarentur sub disciplina societatis in instituto ad hunc modum domo. Christianorum Pater, vulgo dictus sacerdos ille qui domui praeest.' Cordara, Hist. Soc. Jesu, Tom. I. p. 441.

‡ Gonzaga, Tom. IV. p. 1242.

§ Gonzaga, Ibid.

‖ De Souza, Or. Conquistado, L. p. 138.

¶ Bartoli Asiatica Hist. Soc. Jes. Tom. II. p. 232 Seq.

¶ Juvencius, Epitome ad ann. 1548.

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